This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

+ *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.

+ *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.

+ *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.

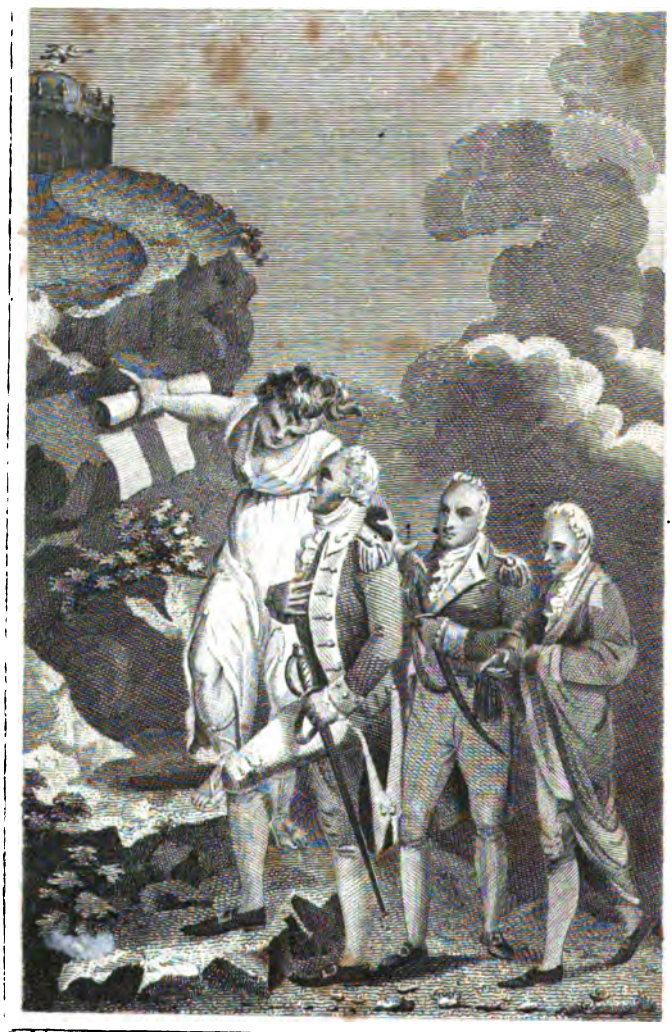
+ *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at `http://books.google.com/`

3 3433 08241535 1

THE NEW YORK
PUBLIC LIBRARY
ASTOR, LENOX
TILDEN FOUNDATIONS



Tisdale del. Seeley sculp.

FRONTISPIECE.

Printed by Reynolds

A

COMPENDIUM

OF THE

HISTORY OF ALL NATIONS:

EXHIBITING

A CONCISE VIEW

OF THE

ORIGIN, PROGRESS, DECLINE AND FALL

OF THE MOST

CONSIDERABLE EMPIRES, KINGDOMS, AND STATES IN THE WORLD,

FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES TO THE PRESENT PERIOD.

INTERSPERSED

With a short account of the Prevailing Religions.

Ornamented with a Frontispiece, representing

HISTORY CONDUCTING PATRIOTISM, FORTITUDE AND WISDOM TO THE TEMPLE OF FAME.

EMBELLISHED BY

Generals Washington, Greene, and Hamilton;

AND THREE OTHER PLATES.

By D. FRASER,

Author of the Columbian Monitor, Select Biography, &c.

NEW-YORK:

PRINTED BY HENRY C. SOUTHWICK,

NO. 2, WALL-STREET.

1806

THE NEW YORK
PUBLIC LIBRARY
706448
ASTOR, LENOX AND
TILDEN FOUNDATIONS
R 1916 L

District of New-York, ss.

L. S.

BE IT REMEMBERED, That on the seventeenth day of October, in the thirty-second year of the Independence of the United States of America, *Donald Fraser*, of the said district, hath deposited in this office the title of a book, the right whereof he claims as author, in the words following, to wit:

"A Compendium of the History of all Nations: exhibiting a concise view "of the origin, progress, decline, and fall of the most considerable empires, "kingdoms, and states in the world, from the earliest times to the present "period....interspersed with a short account of the prevailing religions. Or- "namented with a frontispiece, representing History conducting Patriotism, "Fortitude and Wisdom to the Temple of Fame—personified by Generals "Washington, Greene and Hamilton—and three other Plates —By D. Fraser, "Author of the Columbian Monitor, Select Biography, &c"

In conformity to the act of Congress of the United States, entitled "An act for "the encouragement of learning by securing the copies of maps, charts and "books to the authors and proprietors of such copies during the times therein "mentioned," and also to an act entitled "An act supplementary to an act en- "titled an act for the encouragement of learning by securing the copies of "maps, charts and books to the authors and proprietors of such copies during "the times therein mentioned, and extending the benefits thereof to the arts of "designing, engraving and etching historical and other prints."

EDWARD DUNSCOMB,
Clerk of the District of New-York.

PREFACE.

THE great utility of an intimate knowledge of History is universally admitted; to *young people* it is highly essential, and should be studied by every one who would attain a liberal education. By tracing back the great events and revolutions of human affairs—the rise and fall of kingdoms and states—it will tend to expand the mind, enlarge the ideas, and render conversation more agreeable, interesting and instructive.

History being the faithful repository of the actions of men in all ages, who have performed any distinguished part on the theatre of the world, adds to our own experience a rich stock of the experience of others, and furnishes innumerable instances of virtues to imitate, and vices to be avoided: Every law of morality, and every rule of conduct, is submitted to its test and examination.

The accounts of the origin and progress in population of all countries, are involved in great obscurity.—It is little more than three thousand years since the books of MOSES, the most ancient and the only genuine record of what passed in the early ages of the world,

were written. *Herodotus* is the oldest of [illegible] heathen historians: he flourished a thousand [illegible] later than Moses. If we extend our enquiries beyond the æra when written history commenced, we enter upon the region of conjecture, of fable, and uncertainty.

In this publication, I have taken a progressive, brief, but comprehensive, view of the state of mankind from the earliest ages, of which we have any authentic account, to the present period; and have attempted to delineate the origin of States and Empires, the outlines of their history, the revolutions they have undergone, and the causes which contributed to their rise and splendour, as well as those which operated to their decline and extinction. It is hoped that this work will prove an acceptable REMEMBRANCER to those already well-versed in universal history; and be of considerable service to such youth as aspire at becoming the future LEGISLATORS and STATESMEN of this country.

In compiling this work, I have had recourse to some of the best authorities in the English language; particularly the Rev. Doctors *Mavor* and *Turner*, and Mr. *John Payne*. Mr. *John Crookes*, of New-York, has also rendered me some valuable assistance. To these gentlemen it is but common justice to acknowledge my warmest obligations for the aid which they have afforded me.

D. FRASER.

CONTENTS.

PAGES.

The History of Mankind from the Creation to the Deluge, . 9

From the Deluge to the Building of Babel, ... 18

Of Egypt, ... 33

Remarks relative to the difference of complexion in mankind, 42

The Assyrian Empire, ... 45

The Persian Monarchy, ... 48

The Grecian Monarchy, ... 49

Rome....Under Kings and Consuls.—Punic Wars. . . . 55

——— The Gracchi.....Marius and Sylla.....Pompey and Cæsar....Triumvirate of Octavianus...Mark Anthony and Lepidus, ... 60

——— Under the Emperors....Partition of the Empire under Dioclesian...Constantine transfers the seat of Empire, . 63

——— Final division of the Empire between the sons of Constantine.....Establishment of the Goths in Italy.... Charlemagne, Emperor of the West....Fall of the Eastern Empire, ... 68

PAGES.

Germany....Its ancient limits....Conrad, the first Emperor.... Contentions between the Emperors and Popes....Guelphs and Gibelines....Charles V.....The Peace of Westphalia, 71

England....From its earliest period....Heptarchy.....Norman Conquest.....Plantagenets....Conquest of Ireland.....Civil Wars of York and Lancaster....Reformation, ... 79

———— James I....Charles I....Usurpation of Cromwell.... Charles II....James II...William III...Anne...George I... George II....George III. 93

A short delineation of the English constitution, ... 101

Spain....Under the Carthaginians....The Romans....The Vandals.....and the Moors.....Arragon and Castile under Ferdinand and Isabella....Expulsion of the Moors....Discovery of America, ... 102

Portugal....Ancient Inhabitants...Discovery of the Portuguese in the Fifteenth Century....Freed from the Spanish Yoke, 109

Poland....Situation.....Lech.....Dukes....Woywoods....Cracus Piast....Third Race of Kings....Demolition, ... 113

Italy, ... 119

Holland, ... 127

Swisserland, ... 140

The Ottoman or Turkish Empire, ... 148

Russia, ... 168

The Northern Kingdoms of Sweden, Denmark and Norway, . 176

China, ... 185

Prussia.....Original Inhabitants....Name....Subdued by the Teutonic Knights....Albert the first Duke....Erected into a Kingdom, ... 202

France....Under the Franks or Merovingian Race.....Carlovingian Race....Charlemagne....Invasion of the Normans.... Capetian Race....Conquest of France by the English, . . 206

PAGES.

France....Assembly of the Notables....Junction of the Citizens and Soldiers....Destruction of the Bastile....Death of the King and Queen....War with England....Death of the Dauphin....Descent of the French upon Egypt....The English take the French fleet....Russians join the English and Austrians....Various successes in Italy, ... 218

Scotland, ... 224

——— Scots and Picts.....Kenneth II.....Bruce and Baliol ....The James's, ... 236

Ireland, ... 255

United States of America, ... 269

Abyssinia, ... 283

Indostan, ... 291

The Jews or Hebrews, ... 329

Japan or Siphon, ... 338

Venice, ... 364

A Chronological Table of Principal Events, from the Creation to the present Period, ... 377

Appendix.

DIRECTIONS TO THE BINDER.

Frontispiece to face the Title.
Wisdom to front page 79.
Female Captive to front page 205.
Sir William Wallace to front page 264.

AN

EPITOME

OF THE

HISTORY OF ALL NATIONS.

CHAPTER I.

The History of Mankind from the Creation to the Deluge.

WE shall commence our History with a concise account of the cosmogony, according to Moses' inspired narration.

Of the *first* creation of the heaven and the earth there is no particular description in the sacred volume: nor was it requisite that the inspired author of the Pentateuch should express himself in any other terms than those which substantiate the important truth, that they *were* created by the immediate power of God.

The earth, subsequent to the creation, was a dark and shapeless mass of matter; but, at the sovereign command of the Almighty, the cheerful light appeared, the firmament expanded, to divide the upper from the lower waters; the congregated floods retired to their destined bed; and the dry land was crowned with a rich profusion of herbage, fruits and flowers.

These great occurrences having occupied the three first days, the succeeding one was devoted to an illumination of the newly created globe: the face of heaven

was accordingly decorated with myriads of stars, and the greater luminaries were disposed so as to distinguish between day and night; and to divide the seasons of the year.

The waters were then replenished with an abundant variety of fish; the odoriferous air was fanned by the pinions of innumerable birds; the verdant meads were stocked with cattle; and every part of the earth was inhabited with appropriate tribes. To contemplate, and truly to excel the whole, God created *man*, on the sixth day, of the dust of the ground, and infused into his body the breath of life, or immortality; in consequence of which, *man became a living soul.* Woman was also formed out of the side of the man, who was cast into a profound slumber for that purpose.

Thus, by the creating influence of the Eternal Spirit, were the heavens and the earth finished in the space of six days, when that which at first was no other than an unformed chaos, exhibited so exquisite and beautiful a system, that the adorable Architect himself pronounced it *very good*, and *all the sons of God shouted for joy.*

God having contemplated with pleasure the work of his hands, placed the man and his wife, who were named Adam and Eve, in the garden of Eden (b. C. 4004) giving them instructions to dress and keep it, allowing them the free use of the fruit with which it abounded, with this single reservation, that they should abstain from the produce of a particular tree, denominated the tree of knowledge of good and evil, of which if they presumed to eat, they would incur the penalty of inevitable death. This declaration was made in the most solemn manner, and our progenitors were warned by their Creator to avoid the *only* danger that could befal them.

Fortified with such a caution, and situated in a paradise which God himself vouchsafed to honor with his immediate presence, Adam and his beloved wife were capable of enjoying all the blessings of creation, as well as the company and converse of their beneficent Maker, who is said to have brought every living creat-

ure to Adam, to see what he would call it, and to have established those names which were then imposed by his especial favorite on the various objects presented to his view.

Their felicity, however, appears to have been but of short duration, as the woman, being deceived by the subtilty of the serpent, violated the divine injunction in her own person, and afterwards enticed her husband to a participation of her crime. At this moment innocence forsook the human bosom; and the hapless pair, who, though naked, had hitherto lived with each other unconscious of shame, now perceived their situation with the utmost confusion, and made themselves aprons of fig-leaves to supply, in some degree, the want of raiment.

When God, at the accustomed time of the day, repeated his customary visit of love, and was heard walking in the garden, the self-convicted offenders attempted to conceal themselves among the foliage of the trees; and, on being called from their retreat, Adam alledged his nakedness as an apology for his disappearance. An explanation now ensued, producing a full confession on the part of the culprits, and terminating in the threatened reward of disobedience. The offended Deity, in pronouncing judgment, first cursed the serpent above all beasts, condemning him to go on his belly; assigning dust for his food; and decreeing that a perpetual enmity should subsist between his seed and that of the woman, till, in the fulness of time, the latter should prove completely victorious over his adversary:—Thus shadowing our redemption by a Saviour. The woman was condemned to bring forth her tender offspring with excruciating pain, and to be subject to the dominion of her husband: and Adam was doomed to earn his bread by the sweat of his brow, in consequence of a curse, which God imposed on the ground, for his sake, declaring that it should bring forth thorns and thistles; and that after much fatigue and toil, he, the offender, should return to the dust from whence he was originally taken. At the conclusion of this awful sentence, the Creator, tempering judgment with mercy, clothed his fallen creatures,

and compelled them to quit the confines of paradise, lest, by imprudently eating of the fruit of the tree of life, they might render themselves and their ruined progeny *eternally* wretched. To avoid the possibility of such a circumstance, and to obliterate every thought of their return to their once blissful abode, a cherubim was stationed at the eastern extremity of the garden, with a flaming sword that turned every way, to guard the passage to the tree of life.

To what part of the earth the unhappy pair removed, in consequence of this expulsion, is uncertain; but it appears that Cain, the eldest son of Adam, was born in the first year of the world; and the second, named Abel, the year following. These persons, notwithstanding their near affinity, soon discovered symptoms of the most opposite dispositions, the oldest being gloomy and avaricious, the youngest virtuous and ingenuous: their selected employments were also of a different nature; Cain undertaking the labours of husbandry, and Abel preferring the care of the flocks.

In process of time they brought their respective offerings to God, but with very different success; for whilst the sacrifice of Abel, consisting of the firstlings of a flock, was graciously accepted, the fruits of the ground, presented by Cain, were disregarded. This occurrence was sufficient to rouse the native malevolence of the first-born, who was, accordingly, so transported with rage and envy, that he was unable to command his countenance on the mortifying occasion. The Deity condescended to expostulate with him upon the absurdity of his impious behaviour, demanding what reason he could produce in justification of his anger: and explicitly declaring that the refusal of his sacrifice resulted entirely from his own misconduct, without the slightest attempt of Abel to supplant him in the divine favour.

Cain's heart, however, was too stubborn to brook the reproof of his maker; and, instead of profiting by his salutary counsel, he resolved to assassinate his brother at the first convenient opportunity, and actually accom-

plished his sanguinary intention, while conversing with his destined victim in the field.

After the perpetration of this horrid deed (b. C. 3875) Cain being questioned by God respecting his brother, replied, in an evasive manner, that he knew not where he was, and churlishly asked, whether he was to be considered as his brother's keeper? But he was soon convinced of the omniscience of his holy Interrogator, who appalled his guilty soul with a full relation of his transgression, and solemnly condemned him to become a fugitive and vagabond on the earth, which, having received the martyr's blood, would henceforth withhold the blessings of her fertility from the hands of his murderer.

This sentence, though comparatively lenient, was deemed so harsh by the criminal, that, in an agony of grief, he exclaimed, it was *insupportable*, and, at the same time, intimated his apprehension of perishing by the hand of some fellow creature, in consequence of the wretched condition to which the Almighty had reduced him. This fear, however, was immediately obviated by a particular mark, imprinted on his person, as a token that no one should presume to molest him, under pain of a seven-fold punishment.

Finding it impossible to obtain any other mitigation of his sentence, Cain departed from the place of his nativity, and settled with his family in the land of Nod, where he built a city, and called it after the name of his son Enoch.

Shortly after the tragical scene of Cain's resentment, his afflicted parents were consoled by the birth of another son, to whom Eve gave the name of *Seth*, because he was appointed instead of the murdered Abel.

The sacred historian, having confined himself chiefly to the line of Seth, relates but few particulars respecting that of the fratricide: it is, however, probable in itself, and consonant with assertions of profane authors, that his posterity were extremely iniquitous, and were, on that account designated in scripture by the name of *men*, and the *daughters of men*, whilst the religious children of Seth were honoured with the appellation of *the Sons of God.*

After recording the births of Enos, Cainan, Mahalaleel, and Jared, who are all extolled by the oriental writers for their virtuous precepts and exemplary conduct, Moses presents us with the brief but interesting history of Enoch; a person so truly pious, that he is said to have *walked* with God for the space of three hundred years, and at the expiration of that time to have been translated to heaven, without tasting the bitter cup of death.

Adam, after having beheld a numerous posterity issue from his own loins to people the earth, was at length compelled to sink beneath the destroying angel, whom himself had introduced by transgression into the world; and he accordingly resigned his spirit into the hands of his Maker, in the nine hundred and thirtieth year of his age—(b. C. 3074.) The place of his sepulchre is not mentioned in scripture, yet various conjectures have been formed upon the subject. Thus the oriental christians affirm that he was embalmed by four of his descendants, and deposited according to his desire, in a certain cave on the summit of a mountain: St. Jerome stations his remains in the cave of Machpelah; and the generality of the primitive fathers suppose him to have been buried on Mount Calvary, the very spot whereon Christ, the second Adam, voluntarily suffered in behalf of his fallen creatures.

After the decease of Adam, historians inform us, that the children of Seth, abhorring the profligacy of Cain and his descendants, removed to the mountain where the body was interred, and there devoted the greatest part of their time to the adoration of their Creator. It is also asserted by contemplation of the celestial bodies they here laid the foundation of astronomy, and engraved their inventions on two pillars, one of which was to be seen in the time of Josephus. At length, however, the integrity of these men was shaken by the enticing allurements and personal accomplishments of the daughters of Cain; and, in consequence of some intermarriages with that family, their manners gradually degenerated, till, at length, their wickedness was great in the earth, and ev-

ery imagination of their hearts was polluted with iniquity.

There were likewise in those days persons whose extraordinary strength and stature were equally remarkable with their acts of rapine and impiety: these were most probably the offspring of the murderer, both by father and mother, who tyrannised over the weak, by dint of superior power. A similar mode of conduct appears to have been adopted by some others who are adverted to in holy writ under the appellation of *mighty men*, or *men of renown*.

The wickedness of mankind now increased rapidly with the increasing population, and the earth was literally filled with violence; yet the forbearance of God was continued towards them, and he mercifully resolved to grant them the space of one hundred and twenty years for repentance; during which time he declared his spirit should strive with man, in order to awaken him to a sense of his depravity, and eventually to recal him to the paths of peace and virtue.

It is here proper to remark, that, notwithstanding the *general* corruption, one man was found perfect in his generation, and walking humbly with his God. This person was *Noah* the son of Lamech, who exerted himself, on all occasions, to introduce a reformation both of worship and conduct; and to this end undertook the laborious task of public admonition, warning his auditors of the fatal consequences that *must* result from their enormities. His zealous counsel was however treated with disdain, and the deluded race continued in the practice of every vice, till God is said to have been *grieved at his heart* for the reformation of his incorrigible creatures, and, at the end of their fruitless probation, to have decreed an universal deluge that should utterly destroy them, together with the birds of the air and the beasts of the field. From this tremendous sentence Noah and his family were excluded, having "found favour in the eyes of the Lord," and the venerable patriarch received instructions concerning a certain vessel which he was appointed to build for the preservation of his own

family, and for such a quantity of animals of every species as would be sufficient to replenish the earth again, when the threatened flood should subside.

In obedience to the divine command Noah undertook the construction of this vessel, mentioned in the scriptures by the name of the ark. With respect to its dimensions we read, that its length was three hundred cubits, its breadth fifty, and its height thirty. Its form was that of an oblong square with a flat bottom, and a sloping room, elevated one cubit in the middle. It consisted of three stories, each of which, excluding the thickness of the floors, might be eighteen feet high, and was divided into separate apartments. It was, in all probability, well supplied with light and air, and though it had neither sails nor rudder, it was admirably contrived for lying steadily on the surface of the water, and for thus preserving the lives of its various inhabitants.

The appointed time of vengeance being come, and the ark completed, Noah went on board, in the year of the world sixteen hundred and fifty-six, with his wife, his sons and his daughters-in-law, taking with him all kinds of birds, beasts and reptiles, by pairs and by sevens, as he was expressly commanded; while the rest of mankind, regardless of his repeated warnings, continued to indulge in luxury and dissipation, till the flood came and overwhelmed them with a swift destruction; for, in the self same day, were the fountains of the great deep broken up, the windows of heaven were opened, and the inundation began to fall, which descended without intermission forty days and forty nights. The waters also increased gradually during the space of five months, when they rose to the elevation of twenty-seven feet above the summits of the highest mountains.

Towards the end of the ensuing month, Noah opened one of the windows of the ark, and sent forth a raven, which flew to and fro till the earth was dry, but afforded him no satisfactory intelligence; he therefore let out a dove three successive times, allowing seven days to elapse between each excursion. The first time she returned quickly, having found no place suffi-

ciently firm to afford a resting place; the second time she came back in the evening, bringing an olive leaf in her mouth, as a proof that the flood had greatly abated; and the third time she returned no more.

On the first day of the first month, or the twenty-third of October, the patriarch, who was now in the six hundred and first year of his age, removed the covering of his vessel, in order to take a view of the surrounding scenery, and discovered that the surface of the earth was perfectly free from water; he continued, however, in the ark till the twenty-seventh of the second month, or the eighteenth of December, when he came forth, in pursuance of the Divine Command, together with his wife, his family, and every living creature which had been intrusted to his care for one year and ten days, according to the antideluvian computation; or during the space of three hundred and sixty-five of our present time.

Having thus given a concise account of the universal deluge, with a strict regard to the word of God, we feel it our duty to lay such particulars before our readers as, being gathered from profane authors, may afford collateral evidence of this dreadful catastrophe.

The *Chaldeans* supposed this event to have happened in the reign of *Xisthrus*, who being warned in a dream that mankind should be destroyed by a flood, built a vessel of extraordinary dimensions, and by that means preserved himself and his family from ruin, besides a variety of fowls and quadrupeds that were recommended by Saturn to his protection. This vessel rested on a mountain, after being 365 days on the water. Xisthrus came out with all his companions, and raised an altar, whereupon he sacrificed to the gods.

The *Egyptians* were no strangers to this general destruction by water. The history of *Osiris* and *Typhon* mentions the very day when Osiris was shut up in the ark; the name of *Typhon* signifies a deluge, in consequence of which the Egyptian Priests gave that name to the sea. The inhabitants of *Heliopolis* in Syria are said

to have shewn a chasm in the earth in the temple of Juno, which swallowed up the waters of the deluge.

The classical writers had evidently some traditionary account of a general deluge, from which, according to Ovid, *Deucalion* and *Pyrrha* alone were saved.

The *Chinese* also have some notions of the flood, and of the providential escape of a single family from its destroying effects. The *American Aborigines* are said to acknowledge its reality.

CHAPTER II.

The General History from the Deluge to the Confusion of Tongues at Babel, b. C. 2347.

IMPRESSED with the most lively gratitude to the Author of his existence, Noah, immediately upon his landing, erected an altar, and offered a burnt sacrifice of every clean beast and of every clean fowl. This act of piety proved highly acceptable to God, who graciously affirmed, that he would no more curse the earth for man's sake; but, on the contrary, it should retain all its privileges, and enjoy an uninterrupted succession of seasons, till the period of its final dissolution. The patriarch was also honored with the divine blessing, and received permission to appropriate all living creatures to his own use, and to eat of them as freely as of the fruits and herbs of the earth: he was, however, strictly commanded to abstain from the blood of animals, and to avoid shedding that of man.

God likewise vouchsafed, on this memorable day, to make a solemn covenant with his favorite mortals, respecting the future safety of the habitable globe; and promised, as a sacred token of his inviolable decree, to set his bow in the clouds when it rained, that the posterity of Adam might look on it, and contemplate the effects of his sovereign mercy.

Having received the warmest blessings and the most inestimable marks of affection from his appeased Creator, Noah descended from the mountain, applied himself to husbandry, and planted a vineyard. At the time of the vintage he became inebriated with the juice of the grape, and lay carelessly uncovered within his tent. In this situation he was discovered by his son Ham, who immediately hastened to inform his brothers of the circumstance, and invited them to behold the disgraceful situation of their parent.

Shem and Japhet were, however, too modest in themselves, and too tender of the patriarch's honour, to comply with such a request; and, therefore, having provided themselves with a garment, they went backward, and covered their father with filial decorum: in return for which they were remunerated with an ample blessing, whilst the posterity of Ham were loaded with the most dreadful curses.

Subsequent to the recital of these particulars, Moses informs us that the patriarch paid the debt of nature in the nine hundred and fiftieth year of his age; and the eastern nations have a tradition that he was buried in *Mesopotamia*, where they shew his sepulchre, in a castle near Dair Abunah, or "the monastery of our Father."

Japhet, the eldest son of Noah, (b. C. 1998) was particularly blessed by that patriarch, for his pious behaviour, in these terms:—"God shall enlarge Japhet, and he shall dwell in the tents of Shem, and Canaan shall be his servant." This appears to have been spoken in the spirit of prophecy, and has been fully accomplished in the great possessions which fell to the posterity of Japhet in different parts of the world: in the overthrow of the Assyrian empire by the Medes, in conjunction with the Babylonians; and, finally, in the subjugation of the Canaanites, the Babylonians, the Egyptians, and other descendants of Ham, to the children of his eldest brother.

Of the children of Shem there is little more to be collected from scripture than their names and the ages of the patriarchs in the line of Peleg, till we come to Tera,

the father of Abraham; we must therefore have occasional recourse to the conjectures and tradition of Jewish and christian writers, where we shall find some particulars worthy of attention.

The birth of Shem must have happened in the year of the world 1558, as, at the birth of Arphaxad, two years after the deluge, he was one hundred years old. The only action of his life recorded by Moses, is that which he performed with his brother Japhet, and for which he obtained the blessing of his father. He is said to have lived five hundred and two years after the flood, and to have died in the six hundredth year of his age, leaving behind him five sons; viz. Elam, Asbur, Arphaxad, Lud, and Aram; the second of whom became the founder of the Assyrian kingdom, according to this express declaration of Moses—"Out of the land (Shinaar) went forth Ashur, and built Nineveh and the city of Rehoboth, and Calah, and Resen, between Nineveh and Calah, the same is a great city."[n]

Elam may probably have been intended by the more modern Persian historians, when they asserted that their first king Caumarras, was a son of *Shem*, and this idea is strictly consonant to the Mosaic accounts.

Arphaxad had once considerable advantage above his brethren, in having the patriarchal line continued in him. Many authors derive both the name and nation of the Chaldeans from this person; and Josephus concurring in the same opinion, assures us, that he was the prince of the Arphaxadeans, at present called Chaldeans. It has been already observed, that he was born in the year of the world 1658, and it appears from the sacred records that he lived to the age of four hundred and thirty-eight years.

As we find no circumstance related in scripture respecting the other sons, viz. Lud and Aram, we shall dismiss our remarks on his family, and return to that of Noah, whose youngest son, Ham, now demands our attention. When Noah was acquainted with the indelicacy of his son's conduct, he pronounced a heavy curse, not indeed against the offender himself, but against a

branch of his posterity—"Cursed," says the patriarch, "be Canaan, a servant of servants shall he be unto his brethren." This curse falling upon a son of Ham rather than upon himself, has occasioned many conjectures among the learned. Some have supposed that Noah expressed himself in this manner to avoid cursing Ham, whom God had so recently blessed on his quitting the ark; others are for extending the curse both to Ham and his descendants, whom they therefore consider as the *progenitors of the blacks!* and a third class imagine, with a greater appearance of truth, that *Moses*, by reciting his prediction, designed to raise and invigorate the spirits of the Israelites, who were appointed to engage and finally vanquish the children of Canaan, previous to their complete possession of the promised land.

Ham, in consequence of his undutiful behaviour on an occasion which should rather have excited his compassion than his ridicule, has been considered by the generality of authors as the first introducer of impiety after the deluge; and the infamous character attached to his name in their writing, is perfectly consistent with *Sanchoniatho's* account of *Cronus*, who is supposed to have been the same person.

Canaan, whom, according to scripture, we may suppose to have been the fourth son of Ham, is believed to have lived and died in the country distinguished by his name, where his tomb was formerly shewn in a cave of the mountain of Leopards, at a small distance from Jerusalem. We are equally at a loss to ascertain the time of his birth, and the length of his life, neither of these circumstances being mentioned by Moses. Some writers, however, have ventured to affirm, that he was born in the ark, and that being the fruit of unseasonable incontinence, he was himself a profligate man. That part of Noah's curse, which foretold the humiliation of Canaan, as becoming a servant of servants to his brethren, seems to have been wholly accomplished in him, without extending to the rest of his brethren; with respect to Shem, it was fulfilled in the memorable victories of the Israelites, and the subsequent achievements of the

Assyrians and Persians; and with regard to Japhet, we see a completion of the prophecy in the successive conquests of the Canaanites by the Greeks and Romans, in *Palestine* and *Phenicia*, but more especially by the total subjugation of the once haughty and flourishing sons of Carthage.

Canaan seems to have been known to the ancient heathens. Sanchoniatho gives the name of Chna to the first man who was called a Phenician.

Nimrod, the sixth son of Cush, is mentioned in the book of Genesis as a mighty one on the earth, and a mighty hunter before the Lord; and we are there told that "the beginning of his kingdom was Babel, Erech, Accad, and Calneh, in the land of Shinaar." These words seem clearly to imply that he was a person of uncommon strength and courage. The term *a mighty hunter*, has been variously interpreted; some understanding that he was a great tyrant, and others accounting him a virtuous prince, who, being naturally of a martial disposition, and ambitious of distinguishing himself by his valour, armed a number of vigorous young men, and, by training them to the toils of the chase, rendered them equal to the task of braving danger with unshaken intrepidity.

Nimrod is supposed to have been the first man who obtained the regal dignity after the flood: (b. C. 1998) and the four cities mentioned by Moses constituted an extensive kingdom in those early times, when few kings could boast of more than one. By what means he acquired the sovereignty we are unable to determine, but it was most probably by the force of arms; in consequence of which we suppose Ashur to have been driven from Shinaar, when he went and formed Nineveh, and other cities in Assyria. Various conjectures have been formed, concerning the time and manner of Nimrod's death; some pretending that he fell by the hand of Esau, whom they make his contemporary; and others affirming that he perished amidst the ruins of Babel, which was overthrown by a violent hurricane. Scripture is, however, silent upon these points; and the ancient traditions, va-

rying from each other, afford at best an uncertain authority.

It is now requisite that we should return to the *immediate* descendants of Noah, who after the decease of their father, thought proper to quit the vicinage of Mount Ararat, and to establish themselves and their families on some other part of the earth. With this design they travelled from the east till they arrived at a plain in the land of Shinaar, which they immediately designed for their future abode. On this spot, which proved sufficiently attractive to terminate their journey, they resolved to erect a city, and a tower whose top might aspire to heaven, for the express purpose of avoiding the dispersion of their families. The building was accordingly begun, bricks being used instead of stone, and slime or bitumen supplying the want of mortar; but God, whose infinite wisdom had decreed the welfare of his creatures by the very circumstance which the builders attempted to elude, compelled them to relinquish their project, by confounding their language, so that one could not understand what another said. The city now took the name of Babel, or *confusion*, and the dispersion of mankind immediately ensued.

Prior to this important event, which, according to the Hebrew calculation, happened just before the birth of Peleg, in the year of the flood 101, all mankind spoke the same language and lived together in one body; but it now became indispensably necessary that they should divide themselves according to their respective tongues and families, in order to people the earth.

This disposition and the subsequent planting of nations were performed in the most orderly manner; for we are informed with regard to the sons of Japhet, that, "By these were the isles of the Gentiles divided in their lands; every one after their families, after their tongues, in their nations." The account given of the sons of Ham ends in a similar manner, "These are the sons of Ham, after their families, after their tongues, in their countries, in their nations:" and that of the sons of Shem terminates thus: "These are the sons of Shem, after their families,

after their tongues, in their lands, after their nations." All which texts serve to corroborate and justify our assertion. Notwithstanding, some writers have imagined that the first plantations were made without any method or regularity, every colony being settled by chance, and each individual seizing on his portion as chance or caprice directed.

Allowing Shem to have spent the remainder of his life after the confusion of tongues in Shinaar, we may endeavor to follow his descendants in their migration. There were seven chiefs of his line, concerned in the dispersion, viz. his five sons already mentioned, Selah the son of Arphaxad, and Eber the son of Selah, who seem to have settled from Media westward to the sea coast of Aram or Syria.

Elam fixed his habitation in the country of Elam, lying to the southeast of Shinaar. Ashur's territory, first distinguished by his name, and known to the Greeks by the name of Assyria, we find lying contiguous to Elam's, on the west or northwest. Arphaxad seems to have settled in Chaldea, where his descendants continued till the time of Abraham; yet some authors have assigned him a place in Arrapacitus, a province of Assyria, and others who confound him with Canaan, pronounce him founder of the Chinese monarchy. Selah the son of Arphaxad, might very probably have settled in Chaldea, where we suppose there was sufficient room for his posterity till the time of Abraham; and for similar reasons we imagine the abode of Eber to have been in the same country. With respect to Lud, we are totally unable to ascertain the seat of his habitation, he is indeed fixed by Josephus in Lydia; but it appears needless that he should have wandered so far from his friends, and the ancient name of the Lydians is a strong objection against this opinion. Aram, the youngest son of Shem, obtained the countries of Mesopotamia and Syria, which, exclusive of Phenicia and Palestine, comprehended all the territories westward of Assyria as far as the Mediterranean; and Aram's name is accordingly given in scripture both to the whole of these countries, and their several regions.

Within or near the land of Aram the four sons of Aram may be supposed to have had their respective families. It is generally believed that, Uz, the eldest, founded the city of Damascus, and gave his name to the circumjacent country: Hul, is stationed by Bochart in Cholobetene, a part of the greater Armenia: Gether may be allowed a seat near the river Centrites, between Armenia and the Carduchi; and Mesheck is said to have fixed in Armenia, near the mountain of Masius, which is commonly supposed to be the same with Ararat.

Ham is supposed to have quitted Shinaar, on the ill success of the popular undertaking, and to have obtained the sovereignty of Phenicia; this opinion is at least consistent with the idea of Ham and Cronus being the same person; but, according to those who imagine him the same with Menes, he must have reigned in Egypt, which is indeed frequently mentioned in scripture by the name of the land of Ham: But as we have no positive authority to decide these points, we shall proceed to the consideration of his descendants. Cush, his eldest son, is mentioned by the ancients as the father of the Ethiopians, who in the time of Josephus was generally distinguished by the name of Cusheans. Yet, from various passages of holy writ, we are rather inclined to suppose that he seated himself in the south eastern part of Babylonia, and in the adjoining part of Susiana, still called Khuzestan, or the land of Chuz; from whence his descendants in the succeeding ages migrated to Arabia; though it is now extremely difficult to fix the quarters of any of them with precision.

With respect to the nations descended from Mizraim, the second son of Ham, we briefly observe, that the Ludeni are supposed to be the people above Egypt, at present known by the name of Abyssinians. The Lehabim are judged to be the Lybians of Cyrenaica: the Naphtuhim are said to have settled in Marmarica: The Philistines originally settled in Egypt, and afterwards removed into Canaan: and the Caphtorims are regarded by all the fathers as the Cappadocians.

All we can collect from scripture relative to Japhet is,

that he retired with his family from Shinaar, and fixed his habitation to the north of the countries occupied by the children of Shem.

Gomer, his eldest son, is mentioned by Josephus as the father of the Gomerites, or Gauls of Asia Minor, who inhabited a part of Phrygia: Magog, in all probability, settled on an isthmus between the Euxine and Caspian Seas: Madia, is generally supposed to have planted Media; Javan probably took up his abode near Ionia, in the south west part of the lesser Asia: Tubal and Mesheck are supposed to have resided near their brother Magog: and Tiras is universally believed to have led his colony to Thrace.

Having thus given a concise account of the nations concerned in the first dispersion of mankind, we shall now take a retrospective view of some particulars which have been hitherto omitted in order to preserve the thread of our narrative entire.

The history of the antediluvians, particularly with regard to their religion, policy, arts and sciences, would certainly be considered as a subject of great value, were it possible to expatiate upon these points with strict regard to truth; but as the sacred volume affords but little whereon we might ground our assertions, and the page of profane history is clouded with fable, we must candidly acknowledge that our remarks are founded chiefly upon *conjecture.*

With regard to the religious rites of the primeval race of men, we can only venture to affirm, that they offered sacrifices, both of animals and of the fruits of the earth; yet, some writers have attempted to prove that all the patriarchs, from Adam, had times and places set apart for the celebration of divine worship (their Sabbath was certainly instituted immediately after the creation, nor is it likely that its observance was ever wholly discontinued) and devoted a portion of their property to the maintainance of their priests.

Their politics and civil constitutions are hid in impenetrable darkness, and consequently afford no foundation even for conjecture. It is, however, probable, that the

patriarchal form of government was set aside by tyranny and oppression; and that this change took place among the descendants of Cain rather than those of Seth. We also imagine that their communities were but few, and consisted of vast numbers of people, previous to the union of the families of Seth and Cain; and that all mankind, subsequent to that imprudent junction, constituted but one great nation, divided into several disorderly associations, and living in a state of anarchy, which indisputably tended to contaminate the thoughtless race with an universal depravity of manners.

Even with regard to their arts and sciences but little can be said; as they appear rather to have devoted their time to luxury and dissipation, than to useful discoveries or mental improvement. The last generation of Cain's line found out the art of working metal; and music seems to have been invented about the same time.

The antediluvian world is commonly supposed to have been exceedingly different from that which we now inhabit, and to have been stocked with a greater number of inhabitants than the present earth is capable of containing: and, indeed, this idea seems tolerably well founded, when we consider the surprizing length of men's lives previous to the deluge, and the numerous generations that were then contemporary.

Various causes have been assigned by different authors for this longevity. Some imputing it to the sobriety of the antediluvians, and the extreme simplicity of their diet:—others supposing that it resulted from the peculiar excellence of the plants, herbs, and fruits, that were *first* appointed for the subsistence of the human race; and others asserting that it was the natural consequence of a strong and vigorous constitution.

Each of these opinions may be considered as *partaking* of the truth, though in reality they will not bear the test of *strict examination*: for, if we readily admit the idea that *some*, or even *many*, of the antediluvians were remarkable on account of their *temperance* and *simplicity*, we must of *necessity* acknowledge, that the majority

of them were strangers to these virtues, at a time when they are said to have been *eating* and *drinking*, marrying, and giving in marriage, till the flood came and swallowed them up.

The longevity of the antediluvians cannot justly be attributed to the wholesome or nutritious virtues of the vegetable world. As to the opinion that the long lives of these men were but natural consequences of the peculiar strength of their stamina, or first principles of their bodily constitutions, we are willing to receive it as a *concurrent* though not an *adequate* cause: for Shem, who received his birth before the deluge, and possessed all the virtues of the antediluvians, fell short of the age of his forefathers by three hundred years, because the greater part of his life was passed after his egression from the ark.

From these considerations, therefore, we are inclined to impute this longevity rather to the salubrious constitution of the *antediluvian air* than to any other cause; and, upon the supposition that this air became contaminated and unwholesome after the flood, it will appear consistent that the pristine crasis of the human body should have been gradually broken; and that the life of man should consequently have been shortened in successive ages, to the present common standard.

Whether men were permitted to regale on the flesh of animals before the flood, is a question that has been long and frequently controverted. Those who imagine it was unlawful before that period, found their opinion upon God's assigning *vegetables* for food to *man* and beasts at the creation; and upon the express permission which Noah received to eat flesh after the deluge: and those who entertain a contrary opinion, imagine that animal food was included in the general grant of dominion given to Adam over the fish of the sea, the fowl of the air, and every living thing that moveth upon the earth: and, indeed, this supposition receives a great degree of strength from the facts that beasts were divided into *clean* and *unclean* before the flood; and that animals were sacrificed to the Deity.

With regard to commerce, it was, in all probability, carried on before the flood with greater facility than afterwards; as there was but one language in the world. Yet, it is evident, they had no idea of navigation, and of extending their trade to remote parts by the assistance of any kind of vessels; or otherwise *some* families might certainly have escaped the flood besides that of the patriarch Noah.

It has already been observed, that the first form of government was patriarchal; and, indeed, when we contemplate the honour that is due from a child to a parent, and the natural propensity which children have to apply to a parent's authority for the decision of their disputes, and the termination of their little dissensions, it is sufficiently obvious that the descendants of the patriarchs would voluntarily submit, when grown up, to the government and authority of their father; and it was certainly impossible to fix the liberties, peace, and fortunes of a family in greater security than while they continued in the hands of a tender and affectionate parent.

Considering Noah as the common father of the new world during his life, we may suppose that his posterity regarded him as their supreme governor, and that his sons Shem, Ham, and Japhet, were chief rulers of their respective branches in particular, as their sons again were heads or governors of their particular families under their fathers; and in case of any dispute between the three chief families, an appeal must have been made to Noah, as the only common and acknowledged umpire.

This unity of government was however dissolved at the death of Noah, and mankind were consequently divided into three great parties, which, having lost their common ruler, regarded themselves as independent of each other, and acknowledged one supreme governor to lead each separate party. Upon the decease of these chiefs, their descendants were again divided in their political state; and thus, by degrees, they became ranged under several independent rulers, which seems to have

been the state of the world for a considerable time after the confusion of tongues, and the consequent dispersion.

But when the increasing families began to extend their plantations, and to build towns or villages, it became indispensably necessary that the government of each society should be settled in one person, who might re-unite the chiefs under the same authority, and execute such laws as were best adapted to the peace and prosperity of the community. The recollection of the patriarchal government, and the happy effects which resulted from it, were sufficiently impressed on the minds of the people, to induce them to elect a single ruler, who was accounted worthy of dominion for his paternal care and tenderness, rather than to trust their welfare to the hands of several individuals, who might be influenced by party prejudice, or distracted by a diversity of counsel and opinions.

In this beginning of political societies, almost every town was governed by its respective sovereign, who being attentive to the welfare of his subjects rather than the aggrandisement of his own name, restrained his ambition within the precincts of his own dominions, without attempting to invade or annoy his neighbours. Sometimes, however, the jealousy of a more powerful prince, a martial inclination, or some inevitable dispute, led these monarchs to the field of battle, from whence they seldom returned till one party was completely vanquished, and his possessions were added to those of the conqueror, who, elated with victory, or thirsting for future glory, led forth his combatants to other enterprizes, and by uniting several territories, formed a kingdom of greater or smaller extent, in proportion to his ambition, ability, and success.

These first conquerors regulated their mode of behaviour at these times according to their different interests and dispositions. Some of them regarding the objects of their conquests as creatures unworthy the smallest comforts of nature, plundered them of all their possessions, and condemned them to languish out the remainder of their

days in wretchedness, labour, and disgrace ; an oppression which first introduced the distinction between freemen and slaves. But the wisest and most politic of those men, who carried war into foreign countries, conciliated the esteem of the vanquished, by treating them as *subjects* instead of *slaves*, and granting them a full participation of those comforts that were lodged in the hands of the conquerors. By this method the fire of animosity was soon extinguished, every prejudice was gradually obviated, and the interests of the contending parties were finally united.

Upon the supposition that Ham is designed by the Cronus of the Phenician history, it will appear that ambition began to make some disturbance in the earth even during the life of Noah, who was expelled from his settlement by his ungrateful son. But the first act of usurpation recorded in the sacred volume, is that of Nimrod, who plundered Ashur of his possessions, and compelled him to remove from Shinaar into Assyria. This revolution, however, which is supposed to have happened about thirty years after the dispersion, extended no further than to some of the newly planted nations. In those settlements which lay at a greater distance, it is probable that a simplicity prevailed during several ages, and that wars did not arise among them till the increasing colonies began to press upon each other, and to experience that inconvenience which results from a confined situation.

It is but reasonable to suppose that Noah and his family were acquainted with some of the arts and inventions of the antediluvians ; and it is extremely probable that they explained such particulars to their descendants as were most useful in common life. But it seems unlikely that any of the finer arts or more speculative sciences should have been improved in any degree till a considerable time after the dispersion ; and we must readily admit, that many inventions were swept from the face of the earth by the destroying deluge, and that a great length of time must of necessity have been required to restore those arts, and to polish the manners of

those persons who, on their first settling in a new country, found sufficient employment in cultivating the land for their subsistence, and erecting habitations for the convenience of their families, without designing any farther improvements. They were also frequently obliged to wander from one place to another, in quest of a more convenient residence, and therefore it is sufficiently obvious that a considerable time must have elapsed previous to the erection of towns and cities, and the subsequent settlements of provinces and kingdoms.

Commerce, though rendered extremely difficult by the confusion of tongues, was nevertheless carried on with vigour after the dispersion; as the necessities of men were greatly increased by their separation, and those who settled in new countries finding the want of many conveniences they had left behind them, and at the same time discovering many valuable productions in their own settlement, were induced to visit the parts in which they had formerly resided, for the purpose of exchanging their newly discovered commodities for such articles as they stood in need of: and by this means the first foundation seems to have been laid for foreign commerce, which soon diffused itself in such a manner as to supercede the greatest obstacles, and finally to suggest the idea of navigation, which has rendered the faithless and tempestuous ocean subservient to the interests and accommodation of distant nations.

It may perhaps be expected that we shall now enter into the much controverted subjects of what language was generally spoken before the building of Babel; in what manner the memorable confusion of tongues was effected, and how many languages were then formed. This being a dry and useless controversy, we shall merely observe;—that in all probability the *Hebrew tongue* was that which God first gave to his creatures, or at least we may venture to affirm, that if the Hebrew cannot substantiate its claim, the primitive language was entirely lost at Babel. With respect to the *manner* in which the memorable confusion was effected, there is no doubt but it was the immediate act of God, who is solemnly de-

scribed by Moses as coming down to view the builders, and to accomplish his great design; and as to the *number* of languages then formed, we confess ourselves unable to resolve the question, and deem it of too little importance to occupy either our time or attention. All we know from good authority, is, that the *Hebrew*, *Syriac*, and *Egyptian* languages were formed as early as the time of Jacob: and it seems probable, that the languages of the chief families were fundamentally different from each other, though the dialects between each branch had a mutual affinity; a variation which seems well adapted to bring about the designs of the Almighty, relative to the division of mankind into societies, commonwealths, and kingdoms. *Mavor.*

CHAPTER III.

INTRODUCTON TO EGYPT.

WE come now to the description of a country, which has always held a distinguished rank in history, and was once celebrated above all others for its antiquities, learning, opulence, and fertility. Such, however, is the mutability of all sublunary things, that its present bears little resemblance to its former state; and those who read the ancient and modern accounts of Egypt, can scarcely believe that they appertain to the same country. Its learning is changed to ignorance, its opulence to poverty, and its fertility to frequent scarcity. Yet Egypt affords matter for admiration and pity; the explorer of nature, and admirer of art, may gratify the most boundless curiosity, in contemplating its wonderful productions and the stupendous remains of the most amazing works of art with which this country abounds. At the same time their compassion will be excited by the prejudices that the people have imbibed, and the oppression beneath which they live. No country in the universe has undergone greater revolutions; and, consequently, the description of none can be more gratifying to the general taste, or more interesting to every passion incident to the human soul.

EGYPT.

Egypt has the Mediterranean sea on the north, Abyssinia on the south, the desert of Barca and unknown parts of Africa on the west, and the Red Sea on the east. It is 600 miles in length, and nearly 300 in breadth.

The Egyptians, like the Chinese, and many other of the eastern nations, maintain that they had a race of kings, the first of whom reigned many thousand years before the flood. However, it is generally agreed, that the princes of the line of the Pharaohs sat on the throne, in an uninterrupted succession, till Cambyses II. king of Persia, conquered Egypt, 525 years before the birth of Christ: and that in the reign of this race of princes those wonderful structures were raised, which cannot now be viewed without astonishment; and of which something will be said hereafter. After the death of Cambyses, Egypt continued under the Persian government until Alexander the Great subdued that empire, when it became subject to that prince, who soon after built the celebrated city of Alexandria. That wonderful man possessed talents which qualified him not merely to conquer, but to govern the world, had not his passions enslaved him when every thing external was subdued; yet the noble plans which his original and bold conceptions formed, caused a revolution in the commerce of the world, equally wonderful as his conquests, and much more permanent. After he had subdued and subverted Tyre, he caused its commerce to be transferred to Alexandria, which soon became the centre of the East India trade.

Alexander was succeeded by Ptolemy, the son of Lagus, 325 years before Christ, who again rendered Egypt an independent kingdom, which it continued to be for the space of 250 years. Ptolemy Philadelphus, his son, collected the Alexandrian library, said to consist of seven hundred thousand volumes; and the same prince caused that translation of the Scriptures to be made into Greek, which is now distinguished by the name of

"the Septuagint." His successors ever after retained the name of Ptolemies, and in that line it continued, until Cleopatra, the wife and sister of Ptolemy Dionysius, the last king, ascended the throne, in whose reign Egypt was rendered a Roman povince, by Augustus, A. D. 50, and thus remained till the reign of Omar, the second caliph of the successors of Mahomet, who expelled the Romans, after it had been in their hands 600 years. Omar, actuated by the most barbarous enthusiasm, which led him to consider all necessary and all valuable knowledge as comprised in the Koran, caused that inestimable treasure of ancient literature, science, and knowledge, which was deposited in the Alexandrian library, to be reduced to ashes.

From the time of the first Ptolemy to the conquest of Egypt by the Mahomedans, Europe had been supplied with the productions of the East by the Greeks of Alexandria, by the Romans while they were masters of Egypt, and by the subjects of the emperors of Constantinople, when the kingdom became a province of their dominions; through a period, extending almost to a thousand years.

The caliphs of Babylon were the sovereigns of Egypt, till about the year 807, when the Egyptians set up a caliph of their own, called the caliph of Cairo, to whom the Saracens of Africa and Spain were subject; but the governors of the provinces, under the caliphs of Babylon and Cairo, soon wrested the civil power out of their hands, who had hitherto enjoyed an absolute control in affairs of religion and government, and left them only the shadow of sovereignty.

At length, about the year 1160, Assareddin, general of Norradin, the Saracen sultan of Damascus, subdued the kingdom of Egypt: he was succeeded by his son, the famous Saladin, who also reduced the kingdoms of Damascus, Mesapotamia, and Palestine under his dominion; and, about the year 1190, he took Jerusalem from the Christians. This prince established a body of troops in Egypt, somewhat like the present janizaries, to whom he gave the name of Mamalukes; these became a

very intrepid and powerful body of men. The posterity of Saladin sat on the throne till the year 1242, when the Mamalukes deposed Elmutan, and gave the crown to one of their own officers, named Turquemenius. This was the first king of the race of the Mamalukes, which dynasty engaged in continual wars with the Christians in Syria and Palestine, till sultan Eraphus drove them entirely out of the Holy Land.

When the Portuguese had discovered the route to India by the Cape of Good Hope, their great general Albuquerque endeavoured to obtain a settlement at some port in the Red Sea; after many unsuccessful attempts he at length became master of the island of Ormus; but the Venetians finding that their very lucrative trade in Indian commodities, which they carried on under the protection of the soldan of the Mamalukes, wasin danger of being snatched from them, it so far instigated that Mahomedan prince, who was likewise deeply interested in preserving such commerce in its former channel, that he addressed Julius II. who was then pope, and Emanuel, king of Portugal, in a haughty tone, requiring them to relinquish their new course of navigation: threatening, in case of refusal, to put to death all the Christians in Egypt, Syria, and Palestine, to burn their churches, and demolish the holy sepulchre at Jerusalem. These threats were however disregarded; therefore, as his last resource, he fitted out a fleet in the Red Sea, in order to attack the Portuguese ships wherever they appeared. This he was enabled to do by means of the Venetians; for the love of gain will cause Christians to league with infidels against Christians! The contest was sharp and obstinate for a short time; but in the end the Portuguese entirely annihilated the naval power of their rival in those seas. Soon after, the dominion of the Mamalukes was overturned; and Egypt, Syria, and Palestine, were subjected to the Turkish empire by the victorious arms of Selim I. in 1515, who formed a treaty with the Venetians, and granted them great commercial immunities. Ever since this contest the Turks have retained possession of Egypt.

Ancient Egypt was supposed to contain eight millions of inhabitants; at present, its population is not supposed to reach half that number. *Volney II.* 232.

ANTIQUITIES OF EGYPT.] This country abounds with proofs of its great antiquity and ancient grandeur. Vast ruins of magnificent cities and noble temples still supply scattered memorials to confirm the truth of history, and to exhibit specimens of the architecture of the early ages, before it was improved and brought to perfection by the Greeks.

A little to the north of Cairo, where now stands a Turkish village, the city of BUSIRIS is supposed to have stood, which was renowned for its temple, dedicated to Iris, and some exquisite pieces of sculpture are still remaining, although the present wretched inhabitants scruple not to demolish the most precious productions of art, when they can find in them a ready means of supplying domestic accommodations.

About two leagues farther north are the remains of the ancient city of HELIOPOLIS, called in Scripture *On*, (See Genesis, chap. xli. verses 45 & 50) which was distinguished for the worship of the sun, whose priests were eminently skilled in philosophy and astronomy: these first computed time by years of 365 days. The Arabs called this city, "the castle of the lights," from the perpetual fire which was maintained here.

MEMPHIS, in ancient times the capital of Egypt, which in the height of its prosperity was seven leagues in circumference, at present exhibits no vestiges by which to determine its site, concerning which Pliny and Strabo formed different conjectures: whilst Savory and Volney, among the moderns, are equally wide in opinion. But although its situation is not exactly determined, it is however certain that it was destroyed by Cambyses. This city was there sidence of the Pharaohs; and here the patriarch Joseph, when overseer of the corn of Egypt, established his magazines.

The LABYRINTH, according to Herodotus, was built by the twelve kings of Egypt, when the government was divided into twelve parts, and served as so many

palaces to meet in, and adjust the affairs of the government, and ceremonials of religion. Upon the model of this very extensive and singular structure, the famous labyrinth of Crete was formed.

The principal pyramids being situated near the place where the ancient city of Memphis is supposed to have stood, they are commonly called "The PYRAMIDS of MEMPHIS;" Mr. Volney calls them the "pyramids of Djira."

The PYRAMIDS of MEMPHIS and SOCCOTRA.] About four leagues distant from Cairo are the PYRAMIDS, which were formerly ranked among the seven wonders of the world, and cannot now be viewed without admiration. They are situated upon the solid rock, at the foot of the high mountains that accompany the Nile in its course, and separate Egypt from Lybia. Their architecture, both on the inside and without, is extremely different with respect to distribution, materials, and grandeur. Some of these are open, others are in ruins, and most of them are inclosed; but all have been injured by time. The immense quantity of materials used in constructing them, renders it impossible for all of them to have been built at the same time, and those that were last erected greatly exceed the first in magnificence and grandeur. They are the works, says Norden, of the most remote antiquity, and even more early than the times of the first historians whose writings have been transmitted to us, the very epocha of their beginning being lost at the time when the first Greek philosophers travelled into Egypt. Herodotus, indeed, names the time when the largest was erected and makes it the work of Cheops.—*See Mr. Beloe's Translation, Vol. I. page* 262—370, *and the notes annexed.*

There are four of the pyramids that deserve the attention of the curious; besides these, there are seven or eight other, but these last are not to be compared with the former, especially as some are in a very ruinous condition. The four principal are nearly upon the same diagonal line, at about 4000 paces distance from each other; and their four faces exactly correspond to the

four cardinal points. The two most northerly are the largest; and Mr. Greaves, who measured the bottom of the first, found that it was exactly 633 English feet square, and that its perpendicular height is about 500 feet; but if it be taken as the pyramid ascends, inclining, then the height is equal to the breadth of the base. It is a circumstance pretty generally known, that the square of Lincoln's-inn-fields, in London, was laid out by Inigo Jones according to the exact size of the base of this pyramid.

No entrance could be gained into some other of the larger pyramids, by the greatest exertions of labour, and the use of every means which invention could suggest.

This is the pyramid which Herodotus says was built by Cheops. He reigned fifty years, twenty of which he employed upon this vast fabric, and three-fourths of the inhabitants of Egypt were employed, by forced service, in hewing, transporting, and raising the stones. It is supposed to have been erected about or before Solomon's temple, or 860 years before Christ. M. Maillet supposes the pyramid to be a vast Mausoleum: that in the upper chamber the body of the king was deposited, and in the lower one that of his queen. He forms this opinion, not on any traces which have been met with of a body, for none have been found, but because, on the eastern side of the lower apartment, there is a niche, sunk three feet into the wall, and eight feet high by three wide; here, he is confident, that a mummy had been placed, according to the custom in Egypt, and he is equally satisfied that the king was deposited in the upper hall, although there is no niche to confirm the fact.—To the opinion of this learned Frenchman, may be opposed that of the Englishman Dr. Shaw, who observes, that the great chest of granite found in the upper chamber, or hall, of the pyramid, was probably intended for some religious use, it being of a different form from the stone coffins used in Egypt. Maillet asserts, that when the body of the king who built this pyramid was deposited in this superb mausoleum, several living persons,

destined never to come out of it, and to be buried alive with their prince, were introduced there at the same time; this he is convinced of from having observed two holes, one toward the north, the other toward the east, which are elevated three feet and an half above the pavement, one in an horizontal direction, which he says was designed to admit air to the persons enclosed in this tomb, and by this they were supplied with their food. When they entered this receptacle, he supposes that each person was furnished with a coffin, to receive him when dead, and that they successively rendered each other this last pious duty, until the last survivor, who must want that succour which his companions had derived from himself and others. The other hole, which descends to the bottom of the pyramid, served to empty the dirt and filth. This conclusion, though very confidently drawn, being neither supported by any traditional evidence, nor by any thing found within the pyramid, a sceptic in such an opinion might ask, where are the remains of these coffins? what is become of the skeletons? Not even a bone of those victims, who are supposed to have been thus devoted to the manes of their prince, is known to have been found, and neither avarice nor curiosity could induce a removal of them.—But though in this instance not one corroborating circumstance can be produced, yet it is certain that the practice of immuring the living in the tomb of a deceased king did prevail in those times.

> Which first taught souls enslav'd, and realms undone,
> The enormous faith of many made for one.

At near ten miles distance from these pyramids are those of Soccotra, written by Volney, Sakary (I. 280) They extend from N. to S. and are situated at the foot of the mountains, in a vast plain.

One of the pyramids, which rises above the rest, is called "the Great Pyramid to the North." Norden measuring this structure, found that the east side extended 690 feet, and the north side 710. The perpendicular height is 345 feet.

At the distance of a mile to the S. E. is another, called "the Great Pyramid to the South," which is about 600 feet square at the bottom. It seems to have been cased all the way up, and is built within of hewn stone.

On a lower ground, about two miles to the E. of the last great pyramid, is one built of unburnt brick, which seems to have been made of the mud of the Nile, it being a sandy black clay, with some pebbles and shells in it, and mixed up with chopped straw, in order to bind the clay together, as unburnt bricks are at present usually made in Egypt, and other parts of the East. It seems not improbable that this pyramid was built by the Israelites, and that they also made the bricks of which it is formed; for Josephus says, "when time had extinguished the memory of the benefits performed by Joseph, and the kingdom was transferred to another family, the Israelites were used with great rigour; they were ordered to cut canals for the Nile, to raise dykes, and to erect fantastical pyramids." *Jos. Ant. lib.* II. *chap.* ix.

Many learned men have been of opinion that these pyramids were erected for the purpose of making astronomical observations, and to serve as sun-dials, by which the variation of the shadow, in proportion to its height, could be taken with a degree of accuracy. What supports this opinion is, that two of the sides of every one of these buildings stand exactly north and south, so as to be true meridian lines, and the other two sides stand exactly east and west. Plato first suggested this idea; but a strong objection to it is, that the variation in the position of the earth in its orbit, although extremely slow and gradual, yet would, in such a prodigious revolution of years, be found to have occasioned a considerable deviation from the true meridian line of these pyramids in modern times: perhaps no modern traveller has taken an observation of their present position with sufficient accuracy; otherwise the objection is decisive. M. Volney objects on another ground, saying, "It could not be necessary to erect eleven observatories so near each other, as the pyramids of different sizes

are;" and in support of the opinion that they were Mausolea, he expresses himself as follows: "This sterile spot, remote from all cultivated land, possesses the qualities requisite for an Egyptian cemetry, and near it was that of the whole city of Memphis, the plain of Mummies. If we consider all these things we shall no longer doubt that the pyramids are only tombs: we shall cease to wonder that the despots of a superstitious people should have made it a point of importance and pride to build for their skeletons impenetrable habitations, when we are informed, that even before the time of Moses it was a dogma at Memphis, that souls at the expiration of six thousand years should return to the bodies they had quitted. It was for this reason that so much pains were taken to preserve the body from putrefaction, and that endeavours were used to retain even its form, by means of spices, bandages, and every kind of preservative against corrodation. *Volney's Travels*, I. 277.

In so symbolical a religion as that of the ancient Egyptians, it is not improbable that the pyramidical form might convey some sacred meaning; and perhaps the pyramids themselves might be objects of their adoration as symbolizing the Deity.

Remarks relative to the causes of a difference of complexion in mankind.

With regard to the deep black, which tinges the complexion of negroes, a learned author says, "The cause of this singularity has been the subject of much inquiry, which has given rise to a variety of systems. Some have absurdly supposed, that the negroes, being the descendants of Cain, have had this mark of infamy stamped upon them, as a punishment for the fratricide of their ancestor. If it were so, it must be allowed that his posterity have made a severe atonement for his crime; and that the descendants of the pacific Abel have thoroughly avenged the blood of their innocent father.

But, waving the discussion of such ridiculous fan-

cies, let us enquire, whether it is possible that the negroes should derive their colour from the climate they inhabit? Some philosophers, and eminent naturalists, are of this opinion. There are no negroes, say they, but in the hottest countries. Their colour becomes blacker the nearer they approach to the equator. It becomes lighter and more bright at the extremities of the torrid zone. The whole human species, in general, contract whiteness from the snow, and grow tanned in the sun. Various shades may be observed from white to black, and from black to white, marked out, as it were, by the parallel degrees which cut the earth from the equator to the poles.

If the zones, imagined by the inventors of the sphere, were represented by real bands, one might perceive the jetty colour of the natives insensibly decrease to the right and left as far as the two tropics; from thence the brown colour of the inhabitants grow paler and brighter to the polar circles, by shades of white, becoming more and more brilliant. But it is somewhat remarkable, that nature, which hath lavished the brightness of the most beautiful colours on the skin and plumage of animals, and on vegetables and metals, should, properly speaking, have left men without colour; since black and white are nothing but the beginning and absence of all colours. Whatever be the original and radical cause of that variety of complexion in the human species, it is agreed, that this complexion is owing to a gelatinous substance, that is lodged between the cuticle and the skin. This substance is blackish in negroes, brown in olive, coloured, or swarthy people, white in Europeans, and diversified with reddish spots in those who have extremely light or red hair.

Anatomy has discovered, that in negroes, the substance of the *brain* is blackish; that the pineal gland is entirely black, and their blood is of a much deeper red than that of white people. Their skin is always hotter, and their pulse quicker. The reason of their hair being *curled*, is, because having to penetrate through a network of a more dense and tenacious substance, it be-

comes more twisted, and cannot be lengthened out. The sweat of the negro diffuses a strong and disagreeable odour, because it is impregnated with that thick and rancid grease, which has been long lodged, and slowly oozes out between the cuticle and the skin.

This substance is so palpable, that one may distinguish in it, with a microscope, a sediment formed in little blackish globules. Hence the perspiration of a negro, when it is copious, tinges the linen cloth which wipes it off.

The colour of the negroes is falsely supposed to be owing to the climate, since in Africa, under the parallels, the eastern coasts have no negroes, and even produce white people; and that in South America, the heat of the sun, and nature of the soil, have never produced any negroes. Though it should be allowed, that the western coast of Africa is the hottest region of the whole globe, the only inference to be deduced from this, would be, that these are climates proper only to certain species, or certain species adapted to particular climates; but not that the difference of climate could change the same species from white to black. White people never become black in Africa; nor negroes white in any climate. An union, indeed, between the two sexes of these two, produces a species who partake equally of the colours, features, and complexion of both. If man was originally white, it must be supposed, that having been created nearer to the frigid than to the torrid zone, he peopled the earth successively from the poles to the equator; while, on the contrary, the fertility of the globe between the tropics, is a presumption that it has been peopled from the equator to the poles.

The climate inhabited by the negroes exhibits no palpable variations, but such as may be occasioned by sands or morasses. The almost insupportable heat of their days is succeeded by very cool nights. The *dew*, less profuse under a cloudy sky than under a serene horizon, is undoubtedly the cause of this singularity.

A certain author recently asserted, that the Africans

are equally incapable of reason and virtue. The following fact will enable us to judge of this opinion.

An English ship that traded in Guinea in 1752, was obliged to leave the surgeon behind, whose bad state of health did not permit him to continue at sea. MURRAY, for that was his name, was then endeavouring to recover his health, when a Dutch vessel drew near the coast, put the blacks in irons whom curiosity had brought to the shore, and instantly sailed off with their booty. Those who interested themselves for these unhappy people, incensed at so base a treachery, ran instantly to CUDJOE, (a black man at whose house Murray lodged) who stopped them at the door, and asked them what they were in search of. "The white man who is with you," replied they, "who should be put to death, because his brethren have carried off ours." "The Europeans," answered the generous host, "who carried off our countrymen, are infamous barbarians; kill them whenever you can find them. But he who lodges with me is a good man; he is my friend; my house is his fortress: I am his soldier, and I will defend him:—before you can get at him, you shall pass over my dead body! O my friends, what just man would ever enter my doors, if I suffered my habitation to be stained with the blood of an innocent man and a stranger!" This noble discourse appeased the rage of the blacks: they retired, ashamed of the design that had brought them there; and some days after acknowledged to *Murray* himself, how happy were they that they had not committed a crime, which would have occasioned them perpetual remorse!

CHAPTER IV.

The Assyrian Empire.

THE most ancient of the four great empires was that of Assyria, the name of which country was derived

from Ashur, the first settler of it after the flood. Assyria proper was bounded on the north by Armenia; on the west by the Tigris; on the south by Susiana; and on the east by Media. In this country stood the famous city Nineveh, the capital of the Assyrian empire.

The Assyrian chronology is extremely perplexed and the only certain light we have respecting the Assyrian history, is in the sacred writings. Ninus, king of Assyria, after conquering almost all Asia, between Tanais and the Nile, built the city of Nineveh on the river Tigris, the circumference of which was sixty miles.

But Semiramis, his widow, being determined to eclipse the glory of her husband, founded Babylon, in which she employed two millions of labourers. When this enormous city was completed, she put herself at the head of a prodigious army, and marched into Media, after conquering which, she proceeded to visit Persia, and the rest of the Asiatic provinces, where she erected many magnificent palaces, laid out extensive gardens, and built a number of stately cities. For some time this Assyrian heroine was successful; but, at length Stabrobates, king of India, checked her career and compelled her to sue for peace, and returned to her own country, where she shortly after expired.

Semiramis was succeeded by her son Ninyas, a pusillanimous, lascivious monarch, who shut himself up in his palace, that his subjects might regard him as a God.

In this course he was followed by all his successors. Sardanapalus was the last, and most vicious, of the Assyrian monarchs; this wretch descended to such a pitch of depravity as to assume the dress and manners of a prostitute.

In his time the Medes, Babylonians, and Persians, assisted by the Arabians, shook off the Assyrian yoke. On hearing of this revolt and confederacy, the effeminate monarch was roused from his sloth and marched at the head of his army against the rebels, whom he defeated in three different engagements. But the coalition being strengthened by the accession of the Bactrians, the imperial army was beaten, the camp taken by sur-

prize, and Sardanapalus escaped with difficulty to the city Nineveh. Here he was closely besieged for two years, but finding at last that the place could hold out no longer, and knowing that no favor would be shewn him by the enemy, he set fire to his palace; and destroyed himself with all his concubines and eunuchs. Thus ended the Assyrian empire, after subsisting one thousand four hundred years.

Additional Remarks on the History of Assyria.

Phul, king of Assyria, subdued Israel, b. C. 771 years. Tizlath Pileser, son of Phul, invaded Israel, and carried the inhabitants away captives into Assyria. This monarch was succeeded by Salmaneser, who compelled Hosea, king of Israel, to pay him tribute. Some years afterwards Hosea attempted to shake off the Assyrian yoke, with the aid of So, king of Egypt. On this Salmaneser marched into the land of Israel, and after a siege of three years took Samaria the capital city. He then returned into Assyria, and took with him Hosea and all his subjects. Sennacherib, the next king of Assyria (b. C. 717) marched into Judea, and forced king Hezekiah to pay him a yearly tribute of three hundred talents of silver and thirty of gold.

Notwithstanding this submission on the part of the Jewish monarchy, Sennacherib shortly afterwards sent his general Rabshaken, at the head of a large army, against Jerusalem. While the siege was carrying on with vigor, and by Sennacherib in person, he was informed that Tirhaka, king of Ethiopia, was about to enter his dominions. This intelligence compelled him to raise the siege, and to march against the invader; but at his departure he sent a letter to Hezekiah, in which he threatened that Judah should be added to the many nations which his arms had reduced to the Assyrian empire: He soon returned to put his threat in execution: but a destroying angel, according to the figurative language of Holy Writ, to express the Divine interposition, visited his camp and slew one hundred and

eighty-five thousand of his soldiers.* This judgment compelled the arrogant tyrant to hasten back to his own country, where he exercised the most horrid cruelties upon his subjects, but particularly upon the captive Jews, in revenge for the disgrace which had befallen him in his attempt to reduce their country. His conduct became so odious and intolerable even in his own family, that his own sons, Arameleck and Sharezer, conspired against, and murdered him as he was offering up his devotions in the temple of his god Nisroch.

CHAPTER V.

The Persian Monarchy.

The Persian monarchy, originally of small extent, was founded by Cyrus the Great: let us take a view of its vast dominions. It included all India, Assyria, Media, and Persia, and the parts about the Euxine and Caspian seas. Cyrus was surnamed the Great on account of his heroic and great achievements, in an expedition against the Scythians; this most excellent prince was surprized by an ambuscade of the enemy, and slain. He was succeeded by his son.

Cambyses, in scripture called Artaxerxes. He added Egypt to his empire; but did not long enjoy his victories; for having plundered and demolished Jupiter Ammon's temple, he was killed by his own sword unsheathing, as he mounted his horse. His successor was

Darius Hystaspes, under whom the Babylonians revolted. Darius besieged them, took their city, beat

* The most rational conjecture is, that this destruction was occasioned by the pestilential wind common in those countries, by the name of *Samiel*, which, in passing over the deserts, is sometimes carried into the fertile provinces, and instantaneously slays both man and beast. *Herodotus*, the first heathen writer, takes notice of this catastrophe in the Assyrian army.

down their walls, and gave the inhabitants for a spoil to the Persians. After a thirty-six year's reign, he declared Xerxes his successor and died.

Xerxes invaded Greece with an innumerable army, resolved to reduce it all under his subjection: but being defeated, was killed by his own subjects, who despised him for his ill success. After which his son,

Artaxerxes Longimanus, succeeded to the throne; and after him, Darius Nothus. Then Artaxerxes Mnemon, who left the kingdom to his son Ochus.—Upon this succession great revolts were made in the empire. He was poisoned by Bargoas, who was made king in his stead. Bargoas poisoned himself also, in the second year of his reign, and made Nero Codomannus king, who assumed the royal name of Darius.—Alexander the Great, of Macedon, being made general of the Grecians against the Persians, defeated Darius in the three battles of Granicus, Cilicia, and Arbela, and conquered all Asia: by which means the empire of the Persians was transferred to the Grecians, after it had stood for upwards of two hundred years. This event happened 330 years before Christ.

CHAPTER VI.

The Grecian Monarchy.

Ancient Greece, of which Macedon made a small part, consisted of several principalities, every one of which had its own customs, manners and laws. The kingdom of Macedon was founded by a small body of adventurers under *Caranus*, on the east of the Ægean Sea. It was obscure and of no estimation in the beginning, but acquired so much power and influence under Philip, as to become the umpire of Greece.

Alexander, the son and successor of this monarch, having subdued all the other Grecian states, extended his victorious arms from the Hellespont to the Indies,

and gave law to the whole eastern world. He died at Babylon, of a fever, or as some historians say by poison, in the 33d year of his age and 12th of his reign. The untimely death of Alexander having prevented him from the nomination of a successor; the Macedonian chiefs divided among themselves the fruits of his victories and conquests. 1. Ptolemy obtained as his share, Egypt, Lybia, Arabia, Palestine, and Celosyne. 2. Cassander seized on Macedon and Greece. 3. Lysimachus reigned in Thrace, Bythinica, and a few other provinces. 4. Seleucus took possession of Asia to the river Indus. This division of the empire of Alexander was effected in the year 301 before Christ. Macedonia remained in the family of Alexander the Great, or that of some of his generals, till 168 b. C. when Perseus was conquered by the Romans, and his kingdom reduced to a Roman province. It remained part of the Roman empire till the beginning of the 14th century, when the Turks entered it, under Bajazet 4th, but they did not complete the conquest of it till 1429, under *Amurath* the second.

Of Greece in General.

Before we enter upon the History of the Roman people, who established the fourth general monarchy, upon the destruction of the Grecian empire; it will be necessary for us to take a brief view of the rise, various changes and declensions of the other principalities, which, with Macedon, composed the Grecian nation.

Greece, in its ancient extent, contained,

1. *Athens.* *Cecrops* is generally admitted to have been the first king of Athens, in the year 1556 before Christ. In ancient history he is represented as half man and half serpent, to denote his prudence and strength. In his reign the deluge of Deucallion is said to have happened. The monarchical form of government subsisted nearly five centuries, during which period nothing memorable has been recorded of their kings. The last

king that reigned in Athens was Codrus, who sacrificed his life for the good of his country; after his glorious death, the Athenians declared Jupiter to be their only sovereign.

Magistrates, called Archons, succeeded the kings of Athens, and were entrusted with the supreme authority. This office, at first hereditary, and during life, was afterwards changed into a decennial, or ten years, and afterwards (b. C. 684) into an annual magistracy. Nine of the principal men in the city were annually elected to it. The exercise of power so limited was productive of many pernicious effects. Factions were daily formed; dissentions and discord broke out and raged with violence: material alterations in the form of government became necessary; but these could only be effected by a legislator, in the choice of which they pitched upon *Draco*, a person of approved abilities, but rigid beyond human sufferance. He published his laws, which are remarked for their excessive rigour, in the 39th Olympiad, and 624 years before Christ.

Solon, the wisest and best man in Athens, appeared, and (b. C. 594) established excellent rules of justice, order, and discipline. Scarcely had Athens tasted the fruits of these new regulations, when, Pisistratus an opulent citizen, usurped the supreme power which he and his posterity exercised for 50 years. Four hundred and four years before Christ, it became the prey of the Spartans, who plundered the city and destroyed the fortifications. They imposed thirty tyrants on the wretched Athenians, who were afterwads expelled by *Thrasayqulus*. They submitted to the Macedonian yoke under Alexander (b. C. 338) but by the assistance of the Romans, they again regained their liberty forty years afterwards. In the Mithridatic war, the Athenians, imprudently, espoused the cause of the king of Pontus against the Romans. Provoked by their ingratitude, Sylla reduced their town to a state of desolation. It afterwards fell a prey to the Goths (A. D. 267) and, having frequently changed its masters, it submitted to the power of the Turks, about the middle of the fifteenth cen-

tury; and it remains a province of the Turkish Empire.

2. ARGOS and MYCENEA.—Argos, which looked upon itself to be the most magnificent city in the world, was built by a colony from Egypt, under the command of Inachus. He was styled the Son of the Ocean, because his origin was not known, or on account of his coming by sea to Greece. His son *Phoroneus* instituted the laws of government, and on that account has been called the first king in Argos, the first of men, and the father of mortals. Nothing of importance has been recorded of the kings of Argos, till *Perseus*, who transferred the seat of government to Mycenea. In the 37th year of *Eurystheus*, grandson of Perseus, the Argonautic expedition happened, (b. C. 1224.) This unjust and tyrannical prince had assigned to *Hercules* his tasks; and after the death of that hero, he banished all his children. These were the Heraclidea, who fled to Athens for protection, and who returned to Peloponnesus forty years after the destruction of Troy. In the reign of Agamemnon, the Trojan war commenced; and, in the year 1184, Troy, after ten years vigorous siege, was taken. In the year 1104, (b. C.) the posterity of Hercules invaded Greece, and put an end to the kingdom of Mycenea.

3. SPARTA, or LACEDAEMON.—The kingdom of Sparta is supposed to have been founded by Lelex. Ten kings reigned in successsion from *Lelex* to *Menelaus*, who assisted at the Trojan war. In the division of Greece by the Heraclidea, *Aristodemus*, their general, became master of Sparta. He was succeeded by his two sons, Euresthemus and Proclus, who, alternately, exercised the supreme authority. This form of government remained entire for a number of centuries. *Lycurgus* at last appeared. Admirably calculated to act as a king and a legislator, he new modelled the state. The regal power was abridged by the institution of a sonate. About 130 years after the death of this celebrated lawgiver, the order of the *Ephiri* was instituted: five magistrates were annually elected by the people,

and invested with extensive powers, to keep the senate in awe. The strictest economy, severity of discipline, public spirit, attention to the education of youth, and disinterested concern for the prosperity of neighbouring states, distinguished the Spartan nation. This, with the other Grecian states, submitted to Alexander the Great, and at last was entirely subdued by *Antigonus*, king of Macedon, who defeated their king Cleomenes, and made himself master of the state. This happened 222 years (b. C.) after which Sparta scarcely deserves to be mentioned in history.

4. THEBES.—This was the principal city in *Boeotia*: it was under the government of many kings and great men, famous in fabulous history. The first is said to be Calydmus, and next to him reigned Ogyges, in whose time all Greece was reputed to be deluged. Then *Cadmus* (b. C. 1045) is said to have come into Boeotia, and brought the *use of letters* with him into Phœnicia. After this we read of Amphion, Œdiphus, &c. And, last of all, Xanthus; who being killed in battle, the Thebans renounced monarchy, and established a commonwealth, which subsisted till it was overwhelmed by the Persian empire.

5. THE ARGONAUTIC EXPEDITION, and the SIEGE OF TROY.—Two great events, which happened nearly at the same period, deserve our particular attention, as they are strongly characteristic of the genius and spirit of the times:—the Argonautic Expedition, and the Siege of Troy. This voyage of the Argonauts was a most remarkable enterprize for the times. The account of this expedition, by an excellent writer, is briefly as follows:—*Phryxus*, the son of Athamus, king of Thebes, admonished of his step-mother Ino's design against his life, fled with his sister Helle, who was likewise apprehensive of danger. A ram, with a golden fleece, was sent by Juno, to carry them across the ocean. Helle was drowned in the passage, but Phryxus arrived safe in Colchis. Soon after Jason, with fifty or sixty of the flower of Greece, undertook to recover this fleece of the ram, which, on account of his essential services, had

been consecrated to the gods. For that purpose they built a long ship, the first that ever ploughed the main. This ship was called the Argos, and the helm of it had the faculty of speech!! Chiron, the preceptor of Achilles, formed a sphere, on which he delineated the asterisms that they might direct their course through the sea by the stars. After a variety of adventures, they arrived at Colchis; surmounted all obstacles, carried off the prize, together with Medea, the king's daughter. In their return, besieged, and took the city of Troy; passed thence into other countries, triumphed wherever they went, left memorials of their victories in many parts of Europe and Asia, and arrived at Greece within the space of four months after their departure.

Such is the expedition of the Argonauts, celebrated in ancient history. The various accounts that have been given of it, abound in absurdity, inconsistency, and fable. Hence some have been led to call in question the reality of its existence. But the evidence of it is too clear and strong to be set aside. Almost all ancient and modern writers admit, that the story of this adventure had a foundation in fact. They differ only as to the time when it should have happened, and as to several circumstances relating to it; but, from the best accounts, we may place it about forty years before the siege of Troy by the Greeks; viz. twelve hundred and twenty-five b. C.

This expedition was looked upon as a wonderful exploit, and became the subject of the finest poems: even the gods themselves were amazed at the boldness of the undertaking; and, in order to eternize this event, they placed in the heavens the wonderful ship, which had been able to pass *Iolchos* to the mouth of the Phase!—a thing now done by the smallest of the Turkish barks.

The siege of Troy by the Greeks, is a proper criterion by which we may form a judgment of the state of the *military art* at that time in Greece. The occasion of the Trojan war is generally known: *Paris*, the son of Priam, king of Troy, having been sent with a fleet to ravage the Grecian coast, succeeded in this bold enter-

prize, and returned to Troy in triumph. Among the captives whom he carried off, was *Helen*, the wife of *Menelaus*. The Greeks resenting this injury, equipped a powerful armament, appointed *Agamemnon* commander of it, set sail for Troy, and, after a siege of ten years, (as formerly mentioned) reduced that city to ashes. The memorable event happened two thousand nine hundred and ninety-one years ago. No vestige of this celebrated city can now be traced: the face of the country is remarkably changed by inundations and earthquakes. To the conclusion of this war, the Greeks referred the dates of their earliest transactions; so that it has become a remarkable epoch in ancient history.

CHAPTER VII.

Of Rome—under Kings—Consuls.—Punic Wars.

The city of Rome, as well as its inhabitants, was, in the beginning, rude and unadorned.—Their houses were (what the name they gave them signified) only a covering for them, and a defence against bad weather.—These sheds of theirs were more like the caves of wild beasts than the habitations of men; and were rather flung together as chance led them, than formed into regular streets and openings: their walls were half mud, and their roofs, pieces of wood stuck together: nay, even this was an after improvement; for in Romulus' time their houses were only covered with straw. Thus small and contemptible was the infancy of that city, which was destined to be the capital of the world.

It was built by Romulus, in the year 753 before the vulgar Christian æra, and was peopled by vagabond slaves, and criminals, without laws, without, magistrates, and at first without women. Its sovereign, Romulus, introduced order and discipline, which gradually improved under six succeeding kings, the last of whom was Tarquin the proud, whom Brutus drove into exile

for his tyranny, and the libidinous insolence of his son, in dishonouring Lucretia, a Roman lady; and totally put an end to kingly government, in the year 244 after the building of the city, and 509 before the birth of Christ. The people, having thus recovered their liberty, established a republican form of government, and elected annually two magistrates, whom they distinguished by the title of consuls. The office of these magistrates was to superintend the ceremonies of religion, to controul the finances, to levy and command the legions, and to preside in assemblies. All precaution that was used for the preservation of the state, could not secure the people from the oppression of the nobility. The former soon found that they had only changed their masters, and embraced only the shadow of liberty.—They murmured; they complained. These complaints were soon followed by menaces and acts of rebellion.—Peace was restored by the interposition of a dictator, who was a magistrate elected in the hour of imminent danger, and invested with temporary despotism. In a few years, Rome became again the scene of anarchy and confusion. The people supposing their grievances not sufficiently redressed, retreated from the city to Mount Aventine. The senate, alarmed at this general revolt, abated their former rigour, eased the burdens of the people, and to secure their future interest, created five new magistrates, called tribunes; who were to be annually elected by the people; whose persons were to be sacred; whose business it was to defend the oppressed, to pardon offences, to arraign the enemies of the people, and, when they judged it necessary, to stop, by a single word, the whole machine of government.

During these dissentions all tillage had been neglected; the natural consequence of which was a famine.—The people, pinched with want, and willing to throw the blame on any but themselves, ascribed their distress to the avarice of the patricians, who, they alledged, had purchased all the corn, and intended to sell it out to great advantage. Coriolanus, a senator of austere and inflexible virtue, more particularly incurred their

resentment. The tribunes summoned him to a trial, and condemned him to perpetual banishment. From this time perpetual contentions and discords subsisted between the tribunes and patricians. The number of the former was increased to ten.

Hitherto (b. C. 300) the Romans had no written or fixed statutes. While monarchy subsisted, the will of their kings was instead of a law. On the principles of natural equity the decisions of the consuls and of the senate were founded. To supply this defect in government, commissioners were appointed to bring from Athens, in Greece, the laws of Solon, that such of them might be adopted as suited the present constitution of the Roman republic. On the return of the commissioners, ten persons (who were called the Decemviri) were elected for the institution of these new laws. They were invested with absolute power for one year, during which all other magistracies were suspended. These decemviri caused their laws to be engraved on ten brazen tables,* and placed in the most conspicuous part of the principal square in the city. Some fragments of these laws are still to be found in the histories of that early period. The decemviri, prompted by the ambition and artifice of one of their colleagues, Appius Claudius, endeavored to make their government perpetual; but the people, roused by the tyranny of these usurpers, and on Claudius' offering violence to Virginius' daughter, inflicted the punishment their crimes merited, and restored the consular and tribunitian power.

In the year of the city 396, the Gauls, under the command of Brennus, taking advantage of the civil discords between the senate and the tribunes, invaded Italy, plundered Rome, and laid it in ashes. They retired to their own country, loaded with spoils. The city was speedily rebuilt, but the sad effects of this calamitous event were long felt. About this time the offices of Ædile and Prætor were created: the one to take care of the building and reparation of the temples, and other

* Afterwards two more were added.

public structures, and to inspect provisions of every kind; the other to administer justice, and decide all law-suits.

Not long after this period, the Samnites, a hardy nation, that inhabited the southern parts of Italy, invaded the Romans, who, after a war of thirty years, at last entirely subdued them, under Papirius Cursor (b. C. 279.) Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, in Greece, by making a descent into Italy, next opposed the Roman arms, but with the same ill success: in this war, which lasted six years, Fabricius did his country great honor in sending back Pyrrhus' physician, prisoner, who had offered to poison his master (b. C. 272.)

Till this time, that is for 500 years, we see the people of Rome extended not their arms beyond the bounds of Italy, but were continually engaged in wars with some of their neighbouring states. The defeat of the Samnites, and the retreat of Pyrrhus, terminated in the entire conquest of all that tract of land.

Rome, now ambitious of foreign conquest, began to turn her views to the acquisition of Sicily. Carthage, possessed of considerable settlements in that island, excited their jealousy; and it having given assistance to the southern parts of Italy against the Romans, was alledged by them as a reason for their commencing hostilities. Carthage stood in Africa, near the place where Tunis now stands, and was of much greater antiquity than Rome. As the Carthaginians were at that time in possession of the greatest part of Sicily, that island became first the theatre of war. Hitherto the Romans had never ventured to sea. They now began to apply themselves to maritime affairs; and, by an inflexible perseverance, having at length built a fleet from a model of a Carthaginian vessel which in a storm had happened to be driven on their shore, they intrusted the command of it to their consul Drusilius, who boldly put to sea with his newly constructed armament, and gained the first naval victory. The enemy's fleet was dispersed, and fifty of their vessels taken. In consequence of this victory, the Romans immediately made a descent upon the coast

of Africa, from whence the war was removed into Spain and Italy. The event was for some time doubtful; but the Carthaginians were constrained to sue for peace, which they obtained on hard and ignominious conditions (b. C. 242.) By this war, which lasted twenty-three years, the Romans added Sicily, and all those islands that lie between Italy and Africa, to their dominions.

As the Carthaginians had made peace solely because they were no longer able to continue the war, they took the earliest opportunity of breaking the treaty. They collected a numerous army, and intrusted Hannibal with the supreme command; who, crossing the Alps, marched into Italy, and defeated the Romans in several battles. Rome was threatened with instant destruction; but Fabius Maximus, being made dictator, averted the impending blow by delaying and avoiding battle. In the mean time Scipio the Roman general, recovered the whole province of Spain. He now transferred the war into Africa. Hannibal was immediately recalled from Italy, where he had been successful sixteen years, and had chosen the very place where he had designed to encamp, under the walls of Rome. In Africa he was defeated by Scipio with such prodigious havoc that a peace was concluded the following year (b. C. 202.)

The ambition of these rough warriors now exceeded all bounds. Elated with success, they aspired at the conquest of the world. War was proclaimed against Philip II. king of Macedon, who was defeated by Flaminius, and subjected to the payment of tribute. By the subjection of Macedon, the Romans had an opportunity of showing their generosity: they ordered freedom, and a liberty to live according to their own laws and institutions, to be proclaimed to all the states of Greece that had been subjected to the dominion of the kings of Macedon.

Antiochus, king of Syria, was next brought to bow to the Roman eagles. Not long after this, the unhappy Perseus was defeated by Paulus Emilius. He refused to submit to the conditions that had been imposed upon

his father Philip; and his kingdom, which had subsisted 700 years, became a Roman province.

Not long after this, the Carthaginians took up arms against Massinissa, king of Numidia, a friend and ally of Rome. This occasioned the third Punic war, in which Carthage, once renowned for arts, opulence, and extent of dominion, was plundered, lamed, and levelled to the ground (b. C. 146.) The same year Corinth was reduced to ashes, and Greece became a Roman province under the title of Achaia. They then subdued Lusitania, now Portugal; and after that, the Numantines, the chief people of Spain. In the space of one century, the Romans extended their conquests over the three divisions of the continent. Thrace, Greece, Africa, Syria, and all the kingdoms of Asia Minor, became members of this vast empire.

CHAPTER VIII.

ROME.

The Gracchi—Marius and Sylla—Pompey and Cæsar—Triumvirate of Octavianus, Mark Anthony, and Lepidus.

The fall of Carthage, and conquest of the Grecian states, though seemingly the most fortunate events in the Roman history, contributed to the extinction of Roman liberty. No sooner were their fears from abroad removed, than the people grew altogether ungovernable; effeminacy, debauchery, profligacy, and every atrocious vice, succeeded to temperance, severity of life, and public spirit. As the Romans gradually extended their victorious arms over the weaker states of Italy, they were accustomed to take a certain portion of the conquered lands into their own possession; part of which was sold by auction for the use of the public, and the rest divided among the poorer citizens on the pay-

ment of a small quit-rent to the treasury. For the better regulation of these distributions, various laws had been passed from time to time, under the title of the Agrarian. By these laws it had been ordained, that no citizen should possess more than 500 acres; but the richer citizens getting possession of large tracts of waste land, and adding to these likewise, either by force or purchase, the smaller pittances of their poor neighbours, by degrees, became masters of territories instead of farms, threatening the utter ruin of the industrious husbandmen, and the extinction of popular liberty.

While avarice and rapine were thus raging at free quarters over the patrimony of the poor, one strenuous effort was made to repel their hostile invasions, by the virtue and courage of the famous Tiberius Gracchus: melting with pity at the desolate view of the Etrurian plains, and animated by the cries of the whole people, who importunately demanded the restitution of the alienated lands, he resolutely stood forth the advocate of their deserted cause. He proposed the execution of the Agrarian law. This produced a civil war, in which he fell an illustrious victim to a rapacious and implacable senate.—Caius Gracchus, pursuing the same step, shared the fate of his brother. The Numidian war, which commenced b. C. 111, and lasted five years, affording many instances of the injustice, insolence, and shocking corruption of the Roman Senate.—Jugartha, who had usurped the kingdom of Numidia, was put to death, and that country, with all Mauritania in Africa, fell under the Romans. Soon after, the violence of civil war, between Sylla and Marius, two artful aspiring patricians, shook the foundation of Rome. Factions were formed. Sylla, after having defeated Mithridates, the most powerful and warlike monarch in the east, marched to Rome, prevailed over Marius, but sullied the glory of his victories by the horrid massacre of his enemies. He assumed the title of dictator; but possessing unlimited power, he used it with moderation, resigned the dictatorship, and died a private citizen.

After the death of this unfeeling tyrant, the flame of

civil discord again burst out, and raged with fury. Pompey and Cæsar raised themselves to the highest dignities, and neither of them would admit of a rival. The conspiracy of Cataline was quelled by Cicero, and himself defeated and killed. Cæsar subdued all Gaul, and carried his conquests as far as Britain. Returning into Italy, he was created dictator, and pursuing his rival, Pompey, they met in the plains of Pharsalia in Thessaly; a battle ensued, which decided the fate of Pompey and that of the empire forty-eight years before Christ. Cæsar was triumphant. No vestige of a republic now remained; the senate was dispossessed of all its power, and Rome henceforward was never without its masters.

Cæsar now, possessed of absolute authority, distinguished himself by acts of clemency and munificence, and in the space of two years gave law to the known world. His astonishing success accelerated his ruin. His enemies, excited by Brutus and Cassius, attacked and murdered him (b. C. 44) in the senate-house, at the foot of Pompey's statue. Mark Anthony seized the favorable opportunity, and made himself master of the commonwealth; but Octavianus arriving at Rome, and declaring himself the adopted son and heir of Cæsar, a civil war arose, during the course of which Octavianus and Anthony united their interest, and associated Lepidus with them in power. These three usurpers made a partition of the provinces. The liberty of Rome was only to be found in the camp of Brutus and Cassius. Anthony and Octavianus marched against them as conspirators, and defeated them on the plains of Philippi. Victorious over the republican army, Octavianus got rid of Lepidus, and quarrelled with Anthony, who intoxicated by his passion for Cleopatra, in Egypt, had abanboned himself to pleasure and indolence. War ensued, and the victory of Actium confirmed Octavianus master of the Roman world. We may date the end of the commonwealth thirty-one years before Christ, and 722 from the foundation of Rome.

CHAPTER IX.

ROME UNDER THE EMPERORS.

Partition of the Empire under Dioclesian.—Constantine transfers the Seat of Empire.

The constitution of states and empires, like the human body, is in continual progress, and has necessarily a period of growth, maturity, declension, and extinction. No nation has afforded us a more striking example of this than the Romans. Octavianus, surnamed Cæsar by his uncle's adoption, and having the titles of Emperor and Augustus conferred on him by the flattery of the senate, added to his empire, now arrived at maturity, all the yet unsubdued parts of the known world; its boundaries extending on the west to the Atlantic Ocean, to the Rhine and Danube on the north, the Euphrates on the east, and to the sandy deserts of Arabia and Africa on the south. * At this time the annual revenue of the Roman empire amounted to forty millions English pounds sterling. The city of Rome was fifty English miles in circumference, and its inhabitants exceeded four millions. Augustus was a consummate politician, without any of the virtues of a great man. He new-modelled the state, flattered the people, and rendered monarchy supportable to republicans. Long peace, an uniform government, and prevailing luxury, introduced a slow poison into the vitals of the empire. The national character was changed. All ranks became effeminate; the senate was contemptible; the magistrates without authority or honour; the people oppressed, insolent, and servile. These were sad but sure symptoms of approaching ruin. † In the year 14, Augustus was

* It will impress our minds with a juster image of the greatness of Rome, by observing, that the empire was above two thousand miles in breadth, and that it extended in length more than three thousand: that it was situated in the finest part of the temperate zone, between the 24th and 56th degrees of northern latitude; and that it was supposed to contain above 1,600,000 square miles, for the most part of fertile and well cultivated land!

† Playfair.

succeeded by Tiberius, whose tyranny became insupportable, and he was assassinated in the 23d year of his reign, A. D. 37.* Caius Caligula succeeded; a detestable tyrant. He proclaimed his horse consul; fed it at his table, introduced it to the temple in the vestments of the priests of Jupiter, &c. He was assassinated in the fourth year of his reign.

The senate and people would now gladly have seen the restoration of the republican constitution, but the army preferred a military government, under an emperor.

Claudius was elected; who made an expedition into Britain, defeated the brave Caractacus, and carried him prisoner to Rome. He was poisoned after a reign of fourteen years, by his empress, Agrippina, to make room for her son, Nero; a dissolute and cruel tyrant, who, after fourteen years of the greatest extravagances and vices, put an end to his miserable life; and was succeeded by his general, Galba, whose injustice and avarice caused him to be assasinated, after a short reign of seven months. Otho, the next emperor, reigned three months; and Vitellius, a brutal tyrant, reigned eight months. Vespasian followed; he rose by his merit from a mean original, and in an advanced age, to the empire. He made war with the Jews; and, seventy years after Christ, Jerusalem was taken, and destroyed. Vespasian reigned nine years and eleven months, and was succeeded by his son Titus, celebrated for his uncommon virtues and talents, and for his mild and excellent administration. He died in the third year of his reign, with the character of *deliciæ humani generis*—the delight of mankind! A monster of vice and cruelty succeeded in Domitian. Under the oppression of this tyrant, Rome groaned for fifteen years. He died A. D. 96.

Nerva had scarcely accepted the purple from the assassins of Domitian, before he discovered that his feeble

* In the 18th year of Tiberius, our Saviour, Jesus Christ, suffered death on the cross.

age was unable to stem the torrent of public disorders, which had multiplied under the long tyranny of his predecessor; after a short reign of sixteen months, he adopted Trajan his successor, a prince possessed of every talent and virtue that can adorn a sovereign. Happy in his private life, and universally respected, he died after a reign of nineteen years, A. D. 117. His kinsman Adrian succeeded, under whom the empire flourished in peace and prosperity. He encouraged the arts, reformed the laws, asserted the military discipline, and visited all his provinces in person. He died, after a reign of twenty-two years, and left the Roman throne to Titus Aurelius Antoninus, an amiable as well as a good man. He restored the ancient dignity and authority of the senate; and, after a glorious reign of twenty-two years, died, A. D. 161, having adopted Marcus Aurelius Antoninus, a virtuous, wise, and philosophic prince. He died, after a reign of nineteen years.

"If a man were called to fix the period in the history of the world, during which the condition of the human race was most happy and prosperous, he would, without hesitation, name that which elapsed from the death of Domitian to the accession of Commodus,"* the son of the late emperor Marcus, a wretch, in whose mind every sentiment of virtue and humanity was extinct. This hated tyrant, after having oppressed his subjects thirteen years, perished by poison, given him by his favourite concubine, Marcia. The vacant throne was instantly filled by Pertinax, præfect of the city, an ancient senator, of consular rank, whose conspicuous merit had broken through the obscurity of his birth, and raised him to the first honours of the state. The hasty zeal of this virtuous prince to reform the corrupted state, proved fatal to himself and to his country. The soldiers, dreading the strictness of the ancient discipline, which he was preparing to restore, and regretting the licence of the former reign, raised a general sedition; and on the

* Gibbon.

eighty-sixth day only after the death of Commodus, Pertinax fell by the hand of one of his guards.

The empire was now openly exposed to sale by the prætorian guards, and purchased by Didius Julianus. The provinces revolted; and new competitors offering their claims, Severus, the highest bidder, was hailed Augustus, and Julianus was beheaded by a sentence of the senate, as a common criminal, after having purchased, with an immense treasure, an anxious and precarious reign of only sixty-six days. Having obtained the purple by means of cruelty and bloodshed, Severus secured himself in the government, by inculcating the principles of despotism and passive obedience. His will was the law of the empire. The senate no longer possessed the shadow of authority in the civil or military department; so that Severus may be considered as the principal author of the decline of the Roman empire. He made an expedition into Britain, with the design of completing the long-attempted conquest of that island, and expired at York, in the 65th year of his life, and in the 18th of a glorious and successful reign, A. D. 211.

From this period we behold a train of emperors, vicious or impotent; either wilfully guilty, or unable to assert the dignity of their station. The empire itself gradually decayed, harrassed on all sides by powerful invaders, and convulsed by the furious contests of domestic foes. On the death of Severus, Caracalla and Geta, his sons, agreed to divide the empire. Such a divided form of government would have proved a source of discord between the most affectionate brothers. It was impossible that it could long subsist between two implacable enemies. It was visible that one only could reign, and the other must fall. The unfortunate Geta was assassinated, and Caracalla, after a series of cruelties, was murdered, in the sixth year of his reign. Such was the end of a monster, whose life disgraced human nature.

The disorders of the empire, which began with Commodus, continued for about a century, till the accession of Dioclesian; we will therefore pass over the unin-

structive reigns of Heliogabalus, Maximinus, Gordianus, Decius, Galbus, &c.

Dioclesian, like Augustus, may be considered as the founder of a new empire. As his reign was more illustrious than that of any of his predecessors, so was his birth more abject and obscure. His parents had been slaves; nor was he himself distinguished by any other name than that which he derived from a small town in Dalmatia, from whence his mother deduced her origin. The strong claims of merit procured his elevation. The first considerable action of his reign was, to divide the wide extent of the imperial dominions into four governments, over which presided two emperors, Dioclesian and Maximian; and two Cæsars, Galerius and Constantius: a ruinous plan of policy, which nothing but the superior genius of Dioclesian could support. The northern Germanic nations now began to invade the empire. Peace being restored, Dioclesian, in the 21st year of his reign, and his colleague, Maximian, abdicated the empire.

As soon as Dioclesian and Maximian had resigned the purple, their station was filled by the two Cæsars, Galerius and Constantius, who immediately assumed the title of Augustus. Constantius dying soon after, in the imperial palace at York, his son Constantine was proclaimed in Britain, who, after the death of Galerius, and the defeat of several competitors for the throne, became sole master of the Roman world. He removed the seat of empire from Rome to Byzantium, which he enlarged and beautified with the most magnificent edifices, and gave it the title of Constantinople. Italy was desolated by the change. Robbed of its wealth and inhabitants, it sunk into a state of the most annihilating languor; changed into a garden by an Asiatic pomp, and crowded with villas, now deserted by their voluptuous owners, this once fertile country was unable to maintain itself. Constantine enjoyed an uninterrupted flow of private as well as public felicity, till the 30th year of his reign, when he ended his memorable life at

the palace of Aquyrion, in the suburbs of Nicomedia, whither he had retired for the benefit of the air.

CHAPTER X.

ROME.

Final Division of the Empire between the Sons of Constantine.—Establishment of the Goths in Italy.—Charlemagne, Emperor of the West.—Fall of the Eastern Empire.

We are now arrived at a dreary and melancholy period of the Roman history. Rome, now in her old age, is become a languishing, decrepid, and worn-out body, which glories, notwithstanding, in the greatness of an august name, whose dignity she is no longer able to support. Rome herself is a prey to barbarous nations. Both east and north join to share her spoils.

On the death of Constantine the Great, a new division of the provinces took place between his three sons, Constantine, Constantius and Constans. Constantine, the eldest, obtained, with a certain pre-eminence of rank, the possession of the new capital, which bore his own name and that of his father. Thrace, and the countries of the east, were allotted for the patrimony of Constantius; and Constans was acknowledged the lawful sovereign of Italy, Africa, and the western Illyrium. After this partition of the empire, three years had scarcely elapsed, before the sons of Constantine seemed impatient to convince mankind how unqualified they were to govern the dominions intrusted to them. They murmured about the limits of their shares of the empire. Intestine wars arose, and Constantine was slain by the troops of Constans, who soon after met the same fate.—The divided provinces were again united by Constantius, who reigned thirty-eight years: a prince composed of pride and weakness, of superstition and cruelty.

Julian succeeded. From his hatred of Christianity, and artful policy to extirpate that religion, he has been called the *Apostate*. His civil administration was excellent. He fell in battle at the age of thirty-one, A. D. 363.—Jovian, who was no more than first domestic to Julian, was immediately invested with the imperial ornaments by the soldiers. This prince died suddenly, after eating a plentiful, perhaps an intemperate, supper.

The throne of the Roman world remained ten days without a master; when Valentinian, a native of Cibalis, in Pannonia, who from an obscure condition raised himself, by matchless strength and dexterity, to the military commands of Africa and Britain, was elected by the soldiers. In his reign, the fierce inhabitants of the vast countries in the north of Europe abandoned their own forests and mountains in quest of new settlements. Valentinian was succeeded by his son Gratian, and his brother Valens. On the death of Valens, who was killed by the Goths, A. D. 378, Gratian invested Theodosius with the empire of the eastern provinces. Valentinian II. succeeded his father Gratian in the western; who being put to death, Theodosius reigned solely over the empires of the east and west.

The final division of the Roman empire now took place between the sons of Theodosius, Arcadius and Honorius, who after the death of their father were saluted, by the unanimous consent of mankind, as the lawful emperors of the east and west. Arcadius, in the east, reigned over Thrace, Asia Minor, Syria, and Egypt, from the Lower Danube to the confines of Persia and Ethiopia. Honorius, in the west, assumed the government of Italy, Africa, Gaul, Spain, and Britain. The eastern empire subsisted for many ages; but the western soon became the prey of barbarians.

The frail and mouldering edifice of the republic is now hastening to its fall. Under the reign of Honorius, the Gothic army invaded Italy; and Alaric, their king, formed the siege of Rome. This unfortunate city gradually experienced the distress of scarcity, and at length the horrid calamities of famine. Their last re-

source was in the clemency of the king of the Goths, who was prevailed on to accept a large ransom, and to raise the siege. The Huns, who had migrated from the confines of China to those of Germany, under the command of that formidable barbarian Attila, became the terror of the world: they defeated the Roman armies, A. D. 452, laid waste the territories of the east and west, and urged the rapid downfall of the Roman empire.—Another eruption of uncivilized tribes, from unknown regions, soon followed. Villages, cities, provinces, were plundered and destroyed; and the western world was re-peopled by those rapacious invaders.

Africa was seized by the Huns; Spain by the Goths, Alans, and Suevi; Gaul by the Franks; and Great Britain by the Saxons.

Odoacer conducting the Heruli, Turcilingæ, &c. from Prussia into Italy, A. D. 476, put an end to the western empire, in the reign of Augustulus, whom this successful barbarian compelled to resign the purple, and caused himself to be proclaimed king; but in 493 he was defeated, and put to death by Theodoric, king of the Ostrogoths, who erected a new kingdom in Italy.

This first Gothic king of Italy, and several of his successors, were princes of great prudence and humanity. Ravenna was the seat of their court, and in real magnificence vied with ancient Rome, as their equitable administration did with the reigns of Trajan and Antoninus. They were at last subdued by Belisarius, the general of Justinian, emperor of the east, who had the pleasure of uniting Italy once more to the Roman eastern empire.

Soon after the expulsion of the Ostrogoths, great part of Italy was seized by the Lombards, under the command of Albinus, their first sovereign. He and his successors made Pavia the place of their residence. The government of Italy was now entirely changed. Albinus settled the principal officers of his army, under the name of dukes, in the chief cities of every province. On the death of Albinus, who was slain by the treachery of his wife Rosamond, kingly power was abolished

for the space of twelve years and a half, and each duke became sovereign of his own city and its district. The Lombards during this interregnum extended their conquests in Italy, but being threatened by foreign enemies, they saw the necessity of a close unity, and of committing the care of the war to one person.

Twenty-one Lombard kings reigned in Italy; the last of whom, the unfortunate Desiderius, was defeated and imprisoned by Charlemagne, king of France, A. D. 774, who put an end to the kingdom of the Lombards, after it had subsisted two hundred and six years.

The duration of the eastern empire reached from the year 395 to the year 1453, in which year Constantinople was taken by the Turkish sultan, Mahomet II. In the course of this period it never equalled the ancient Roman empire in power or splendour; and it presented always a spectacle of weakness, folly, superstition, and crimes. It was gradually dismembered, and rent in pieces. The Bulgarians claimed one part of it; and the Saracens, a race of people who inhabited the deserts of Arabia, conquered Syria, Palestine, Egypt, and other neighbouring countries. On the ruins of the eastern Roman monarchy, Mahomet II. established the Turkish empire, and his descendants still possess the finest country on the globe. Greece, where civil liberty was first known, and where arts and sciences were first brought to perfection, continues to this day to be the seat of ignorance, barbarism, and despotism.—*Turner.*

CHAPTER XI.

GERMANY.

Its ancient Limits.—Conrad, the first Emperor.—Contentions between the Emperors and Popes.—Guelphs and Gebelines.—Charles V.—The Peace of Westphalia.

The warlike Germans, who first resisted, then invaded, and at last overturned, the western monarchy of Rome, have the next claim to our attention.

Ancient Germany extended over one third of Europe. It included almost the whole of Germany, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Finland, Livonia, Prussia, and the greater part of Poland. This extensive empire was governed by an infinite number of independent princes, and peopled by a variety of tribes under different names, whose complexion, manners, and languages, denoted a common origin.

In the fifth and sixth centuries many of these nations left their native country, and founded empires of their own under the general or chieftain who led them forth. Wherever these barbarians marched, their route was marked with blood. The most fertile and populous provinces were converted into deserts. Italy, and Rome itself, were often pillaged. New invaders, from regions still more remote and barbarous, drove out or exterminated the former settlers, and Europe was successively laid waste, till the North, by pouring forth its myriads, was drained of people, and the sword of slaughter tired of destroying.*

The first proper emperor of Germany, after it was wholly detached from France, and the imperial dignity became elective, was Conrad. This extensive country was at that time nearly confined within its present boundaries.

Conrad, at the time of his election to the empire, was count of Franconia. His reign was one continued scene of troubles, though he took every necessary measure to support his authority, and preserve the tranquility of the empire. He died without male heirs in 919, after recommending to the Germanic body, as his successor, Henry, surnamed the Fowler, a prince of great abilities, who re-established the affairs of Germany. His son Otho I. triumphed over many rivals, subjected Denmark and Bohemia to tribute, and became the most powerful prince of his age. He had the honour of re-uniting Italy to the imperial dominions; and he procured a decree from the clergy, that he and his successors should

* Modern Europe.

have the power of nominating the pontiff, and of granting investures to bishops. He died in 973, after a reign of thirty-six years; during which, by his generosity and courage, he had justly acquired the appellation of OTHO THE GREAT.

Otho II. surnamed the Sanguinary, on account of the blood spilt under his reign, succeeded his father at the age of eighteen. Nothing of importance happened during this, or the reigns of several succeeding emperors, till

Henry IV. surnamed the Great, who at the age of five years succeeded his father, in 1056. This prince maintained a perpetual struggle with the popes through the whole of his reign. These troubles were occasioned by a famous decree passed in a council of one hundred and thirteen bishops, ordaining, that, for the future, the cardinals only should elect the pope, and that the election should be confirmed by the rest of the Roman clergy, and the people. This Henry opposed; and on being accused of still continuing to nominate bishops and abbots (a right which his predecessors, in common with almost all princes, enjoyed, notwithstanding the apostolic decree to the contrary) the formidable sentence of excommunication was pronounced against him by Gregory VII. and his subjects withdrew their allegiance.—Alarmed and astonished, he undertook a journey to Italy, in the midst of winter, accompanied only by a few domestics, to ask absolution of his tyrannical oppressor. Being stripped of his clothes, and wrapped in sackcloth, he approached the haughty pontiff as a suppliant, and with difficulty obtained forgiveness. Henry V. his son. surrendered up the right of investiture, (A. D. 1122) to the disgrace of the imperial dignity. This unnatural brute, at the instigation of the popes, caused his father's body, as the carcase of an excommunicated wretch, to be dug out of the grave where it was buried, in the cathedral at Liege, and be carried to a cave at Spire. He married Maud, or Matilda, daughter of Henry I. king of England, by whom he had no children; so that the

empire after his death, which happened in 1125, was left without a head.

The states conferred the imperial dignity on Lothario, duke of Saxe-Suplembourg, distinguished by a passionate love of peace, and an exact distribution of justice. Being seized with a dangerous distemper, which carred him off in the 12th year of his reign, he was succeeded by

Conrad III. nephew to Henry V. But the imperial throne was disputed by Henry the Haughty, duke of Bavaria, the name of whose family was Guelph: hence those who espoused his party were called Guelphs; an appellation afterwards usually bestowed on the enemies of the emperors. The imperial army was commanded by Frederic, duke of Suabia, the emperor's brother, who being born at the village of Hieghibelin, gave his soldiers the name of Gibelines; an epithet by which the imperial party was distinguished, while the pope's adherents grew famous under that of Guelphs.* Conrad increased the authority and influence of the prince. His nephew and successor, Frederic, duke of Suabia, surnamed Barbarossa, extended the prerogative, and supported the dignity of the empire, with equal courage and reputation. He died in an expedition to the Holy Land; and was succeeded, A. D. 1190, in the imperial throne, by his son Henry VI. who copied his example. This prince detained Richard I. king of England, on his return from the Holy Land, prisoner, and loaded him with irons; but afterwards ransomed him for 150,000 marks of pure silver, about 300,000l. English money—an enormous sum in those days!—The Normans rebelled; and on being conquered by Henry, he condemned their chiefs to perish by the most excruciating tortures. One Iornandi, of the house of the Norman princes, was tied naked on a chair of red hot iron, and crowned with a circle of the same burning metal, which was nailed to his head. The empress, shocked at such cruelty, renounced her faith to her husband. Henry soon after

* Modern Europe.

(A. D. 1197) died of poison. The power which these emperors had acquired was lost by Frederic II. (the son and successor of Henry VI.) the last assertor of the privileges of the empire, in opposition to the pretensions of the pope.

After the death of Conrad, Frederic's son, a variety of candidates appeared for the imperial throne, and several were elected by different parties; among whom was Richard, duke of Cornwall, brother to Henry III. king of England; but no emperor was properly acknowledged till the year 1273, when Rudolph I. count of Hapsbourg, was unanimously raised to the vacant throne, whose reign was one continued scene of troubles, and at last ended in his deposition.

The fiercest contests were carried on for many years, by those families that aspired to the supreme power; and the quarrel of the emperors with the popes was likewise prosecuted with rigour. Benedict XII. having refused absolution to Lewis V. the princes of the empire assembled at Franckfort, A. D. 1338, and established the famous constitution called the Pragmatic Sanction, by which it was irrevocably fixed "that the plurality of the suffrages of the electoral college confers the empire without the consent of the holy see: that the pope has no authority over the emperor of Germany, nor any right to approve or reject his election."

Nothing worthy notice occurred during the reigns of the several succeeding emperors, till Albert II. whose short reign may be considered as the epoch of the grandeur of the house of Austria; for in the space of one year, (A. D. 1438) this emperor received three crowns, viz. those of Hungary, of the Empire, and of Bohemia.

In the succeeding reign, under Frederic III. the art of printing was invented by John Gottemberg, of Mentz, and America was discovered.

His successor, Maximilian I. by his marriage with Mary, princess of Burgundy, added the Netherlands to his dominions. During this reign Germany was divided into circles, in each of which a provincial and particular jurisdiction was established. On his death,

Charles V. succeeded to the throne in 1516, whose reign abounded in great and important events. He was grandson to Maximilian, and heir to the kingdom of Spain in right of his mother Joanna.

This was the period of the reformation of religion that took place in several parts of Germany. Pope Leo X. to supply the luxuries of his court, had recourse to a public sale of indulgencies. This traffic excited just abhorrence in Martin Luther, professor of divinity at Wirtemberg, who published his Theses, Sept. 30, 1517. The interest and power of the court of Rome were exerted to destroy so daring an opponent, and to suppress his doctrines, but in vain. Such was the beginning of the reformation, which extended its effects not only to all the kingdom of Europe, but likewise to the most distant part of the globe.

Charles V. had been successful in above thirty battles, where he commanded himself; but in the decline of life his good fortune began to forsake him; and being highly chagrined at this change, and oppressed by sickness, he resigned the empire to his brother Ferdinand; and the kingdom of Spain, the Netherlands, Italian dominions, &c. &c. to his son Philip II. in 1556, and passed the remainder of his days in a monastery.

During the reigns of several of the succeeding emperors, nothing of great importance is recorded, except the violent commotions which were excited by the Catholics and Lutherans, and which desolated the empire till the year 1648, when Ferdinand III. concluded the peace of Westphalia, by which the Catholic and Protestant religions were equally established. This peace preserved the empire from destruction; and Germany, from that time, has been gradually increasing in power and splendor.

Ferdinand was succeeded in the imperial dignity by his son Leopold, in the year 1658; against whom the Hungarians rebelled, and put themselves under the protection of the Turkish emperor, Mahomet IV. who proclaimed war against the house of Austria. The Turks in the beginning were irresistible, and would

have taken Vienna, had not the siege been raised by Sobieski, king of Poland, who obliged the infidels to so precipitate a retreat, that they abandoned not only their tents, artillery, and baggage, but left behind them the famous standard of Mahomet, which was sent as a present to the pope.—The Turks were again defeated in the plains of Barean, and all Hungary was recovered by the imperial arms (A. D. 1683.)

On the death of Leopold, in the year 1705, his son Joseph I. was raised to the vacant throne. During this reign, the war was carried on against France by the Imperialists, in conjunction with Great Britain, Portugal, and the States of Holland. The duke of Marlborough commanded the English, and prince Eugene the imperial troops. These two generals never engaged in any battle but what they gained, nor besieged a town which they did not make themselves masters of.

Joseph died suddenly, A. D. 1711, after a reign which had been one continued flow of success.

He was succeeded in the imperial throne by his brother, Charles VI. who dying without male issue, the house of Austria was extinguished, after it had governed Germany upwards of three centuries.

The succession to the whole Austrian dominions belonged to the archduchess Maria Theresa, the emperor's eldest daughter, by virtue of the Pragmatic Sanction.—The kingdoms of Hungary and Bohemia, the provinces of Silesia, Suabia, Upper and Lower Austria, Stiria, Carinthia, Carniola, the four finest towns, Burgaw, Brisgaw, the Low Countries, Friuli, Tirol, the duchy of Milan, and the duchies of Parma and Placentia, formed that immense inheritance.

After great opposition, the elector of Bavaria, under the name of Charles VII. was invested with the imperial ensigns, Jan. 4, 1742. This prince, worn out by a complication of bodily ills and a long train of misfortunes, died in the beginning of the year 1745, when Francis I. the grand-duke of Tuscany, husband to Maria Theresa queen of Hungary, daughter of Charles VI. was raised to the head of the empire, in spite of the op-

position of the house of Bourbon. He was an unsuccessful but wise and prudent prince. Francis I. dying suddenly, Aug. 18, 1765, his son Joseph Benedict-Augustus II. was elected, who dying in 1790 was succeeded by Leopold duke of Tuscany. Leopold II. after a short reign of two years, died suddenly on March 1, 1792, and was succeeded by the present emperor Francis II.—*Turner.*

Formerly there were nine electors, in whom were vested the right of electing the emperors of Germany.—The three ecclesiastical were the archbishops of Mentz, Treves and Cologne.

The secular were, Bohemia, Saxony, Brandenburgh, the Palatinate, Bavaria, and Hanover. The heir apparent to the empire must be chosen by the electors king of the Romans, to secure his succession.

In 1791 the French revolution attracted the attention of all the European powers; and a conference was held at Pilnitz between the emporor of Germany, the king of Prussia, and the elector of Saxony: At this conference a coalition was formed, with a view of restoring of Monarchy in France.

By the definitive treaty concluded at Luneville, on the 9th of February, 1801, between the French republic and the emperor of Germany, the house of Austria was compelled to relinquish the sovereignty of the Belgic provinces, the grand duchy of Tuscany, and all the fine domains on the left Bank of the Rhine.

Thus ended a contest which lasted ten years, and occasioned such a prodigious waste of blood and treasure.

Bonaparte, the present emperor of the French, who has assumed the right of creating and dethroning kings, has lately made great revolutions among the German princes, and considerably curtailed the former extent of the Germanic empire.

Religion.—The Germans became acquainted with some principles of the Christian religion towards the close of the seventh century, by means of the Irish Killian. The reformation began in Germany about the year 1517; for, the archbishop of Mentz being

THE NEW
PUBLIC LIBRARY
ASTOR LENOX
TILDEN FOUNDATIONS

Murphy sculp

WISDOM.

Her ways are ways of pleasantness,
and all her paths are peace.

unable to pay the large sums the pope exacted from him, procured leave of his holiness to sell his pardons and indulgences to all the great towns in Germany. Dr. Martin Luther, hearing of this, protested against the proceeding, and openly disputed at Wirtemberg and Leipsic against those who asserted the power of the pope to grant pardons and indulgences, notwithstanding his being threatened with excommunication, and his being condemned as a heretic. The elector of Saxony approving of his doctrines, he boldly propagated them in other parts of Germany, where the dukes of Brunswick and Lunenburg, Mecklenburg, and the Marquis of Brandenburg, the Landgrave of Hesse, and the inhabitants of most of the imperial cities, became his disciples; and, in 1529, protested against the conclusion of the diet of Spire, by which all innovations in religion, till the decree of a future council should be obtained, were declared unlawful. From this protest they received the name of "PROTESTANTS."

The Roman, the Lutheran, and Calvinist religion only tolerated in Germany.

CHAPTER XII.

ENGLAND.

From its earliest period.—Heptarchy.—Norman Conquest.—Plantagenets.—Conquest of Ireland.—Civil Wars of York and Lancaster.—Reformation.

The accounts of the first population of all nations are extremely uncertain; the early æras, and the transactions of the immediately succeeding periods, are generally enveloped in thick darkness, or involved in fable.

Britain was little known before the invasion of Julius Cæsar, and its inhabitants were then remarkable only for their ferocity or barbarism. It received the name of Albion, from its white rocks.; and Britain from Britt, an old word, signifying, at that time, *painting the skin*, which was much used by the first people.

Julius Cæsar conducted his army into this unknown country, which was divided into several small states, governed by petty princes, fifty-five years before Christ. The emperor Claudius conquered a great part of the island, and carried their chief prince, Caractacus, to Rome in triumph. Under Nero, the Britons rebelled; but at last they were finally subdued by Julius Agricola.

Five hundred years Britain continued a Roman province; when, by the decline and fall of the Roman empire, they again recovered their liberty. The South Britons were left in a defenceless state, suffering continual depredations from their neighbours, the Picts and Scots, who had not, like themselves, been reduced by the Romans to a state of civilised and peaceful servitude.—These two great tribes, into which the inhabitants of the northern region of the island were then divided, uniting, made frequent and destructive inroads into the territories of the Britons, which they plundered and laid waste.

About forty years after the dissolution of the Roman government, (A. D. 449) Vortigern appears to have obtained the supreme command of the princes and cities of Britain. This unfortunate monarch, harrassed by the continual invasions of a domestic foe, was at length reduced to the necessity of inviting the Saxons, a German nation, to protect his throne and people from the fury of those barbarians.* Hengist and Horsa, two Saxon chiefs, as they ranged along the eastern coast with three ships, were engaged, by the promise of an ample stipend, to embrace the defence of Britain; and their intrepid valour soon delivered them from their enemies. The isle of Thanet, a secure and fertile district, was allotted for the residence of those German auxiliaries, and they were supplied, according to the treaty, with an allowance of clothing and provisions. Having repulsed the Scots and Picts, the perfidious Hengist, being joined by successive colonies of his own coun-

* Gibbon.

trymen,* turned his arms against the Britons, and perpetrated a treacherous massacre during the security of a feast. After a long and violent contest, the Saxons extirpated or enslaved those whom they had engaged to protect. Different parts of the island being subdued by different chieftains or leaders—seven independent thrones—the Saxon heptarchy—were founded by the conquerors.

The history of the Saxon heptarchy is obscure and uninteresting. It is sufficient to mark the duration of the several kingdoms, till their union under Egbert.

The kingdom of Kent began A. D. 455, and continued till A. D. 827, during which period the Saxons were converted to Christianity.

Northumberland began A. D. 547, and continued till A. D. 926.

East Anglia began A. D. 575, and continued till A. D. 928.

Mercia began A. D. 582, and continued to A. D. 827.

Essex began A. D. 527, and ended A. D. 827.

Sussex began A. D. 491, and ended A. D. 687.

Wessex, which ultimately subdued and united the whole heptarchy, began A. D. 519, and ended A. D. 827.

EGBERT, king of Wessex, having acquired the art of war and government at the court of Charlemagne, united these seven independent kingdoms, A. D. 827, and thus laid the foundation of the kingdom of England. His reign was disturbed by the Normans or Danes, who from time to time ravaged the coast, but were as often totally defeated (A. D. 838.) He left his kingdom to his son

ETHELWOLF, a prince better fitted to wear the cowl than the crown, during whose feeble reign the Danes returned, and continued their depredations unmolested.

ALFRED the Great, his youngest son, succeeded to

* These colonies were principally composed of three valliant tribes or nations of Germany—the Jutes, the old Saxons, and the Angles.

the throne, in consequence of the death of his elder brothers. The Danes landed in great numbers, made themselves masters of the sea-coasts, and of the most fertile provinces. They were at last defeated with great slaughter; and Alfred allowed a body of the vanquished enemy to settle in Northumberland, on their consenting to submit to his government, and embrace Christianity. This great prince established a regular militia for the defence of his kingdom; divided England into hundreds and tithings; appointed trials by jury and county courts. He encouraged learning, navigation, and commerce.

On the death of Alfred, A. D. 899, England relapsed into barbarism. During the weak administration of several of his successors, the Danes renewed their invasions, till ETHELRED, a weak prince, at first endeavoured meanly to compound with them for his safety, and afterwards, with a cruelty incident to weak minds, formed the design of massacreing the Danes in the kingdom, A. D. 1002, which he carried into execution. SWEYN, king of Denmark, took vengeance on the English for the slaughter of his countrymen, and compelled Ethelred to seek refuge in the court of his brother-in-law, Richard, duke of Normandy, A. D. 1013.

His son, EDMOND IRONSIDE, after having bravely struggled for the independence of his kingdom, was at last betrayed by his general, Edric, and obliged to divide his dominions with Canute, son of the Danish king Sweyn. Edmund survived this division only a month, being murdered at Oxford by two of his chamberlains, A. D. 1017, whose treachery made way for the accession of CANUTE, the Dane, to the throne of England. This prince, by the conquest of Norway, became the most powerful monarch of his time; being sovereign of Denmark, Norway, and England.

Of HAROLD HAREFOOT, and HARDICANUTE, his sons and successors, nothing is recorded that merits attention: only, that on the death of Hardicanute, the English shook off the Danish yoke, and placed on the throne of his sucessors, EDWARD, surnamed the Confessor, son of the unfortunate Ethelred. Though an

excellent prince, he disgusted the English by his partiality to the Normans, among whom he had been educated; and he declared William, duke of Normandy, his cousin, to be his successor.

On the death of Edward, HAROLD, the son of earl Godwin, usurped the vacant throne; but his right was disputed by the duke of Normandy, who landed on the coast of Sussex, at the head of 60,000 men. The battle of Hastings, A. D. 1066, won by the Normans, placed William the Conqueror on the throne of England, and terminated the Anglo-Saxon monarchy in Britain.

WILLIAM, thus possessed of the crown, by a pretended will of king Edward, abetted by force of arms, with a prudent policy, endeavoured to conciliate the affections of the nobility and gentry, by confirming them in the possession of their lands and dignities; but every where disarmed the natives, and placed all real power in the hands of the Normans. He established the feodal government, divided the kingdom into baronies, and ordered a general survey to be taken of all the lands of England; their extent in each district, their proprietors, tenures, value; the quantity of meadow, pasture, wood, and arable land, which they contained; and, in some counties, the number of tenants, cottagers, and slaves of all denominations, who lived upon them, A. D. 1081. This valuable piece of antiquity, called Domesday Book, is still preserved in the Exchequer, and helps to illustrate to us the ancient state of England. William died A. D. 1087, and was succeeded in the duchy of Normandy by his eldest son Robert, and the kingdom of England by his second son,

WILLIAM, surnamed RUFUS, whose violent and tyrannical reign continued thirteen years, when on his death, Henry I. usurped the throne, which was the inheritance of his elder brother Robert of Normandy.—This prince governed with severity. His domestic misfortunes were very great. His only son William, who had attained his 18th year, had accompanied him on an expedition into Normandy, but perished on his

return, with all his retinue. The royal youth was anxious to get first to land; and the captain of the vessel, being intoxicated with liquor heedlessly ran her on a rock, where she was immediately dashed to pieces.—The king was so much affected by the news, that he is said never to have smiled more (A. D. 1120.) His daughter Matilda married Geoffrey Plantagenet, son of the Count of Anjou. Henry, dying A. D. 1135, destined the succession of the kingdom to his daughter; but his nephew

STEPHEN usurped the throne. The despotism of the king, the licentiousness of the nobles, and the oppression of the people, invited and encouraged the earl of Gloucester, and David king of Scotland, to take up arms in support of Matilda's right (A.D. 1138.) A long and bloody war ensued ,which, after various successes, terminated in the succession being secured to Henry of Anjou, Matilda's son. The usurper died the year after, when

HENRY II. (surnamed Plantagenet) was invested with the supreme power. He was the greatest prince of his time. He began his reign with re-establishing justice and good order, to which the English world had been long a stranger. He attempted next to reform the abuses of the church, but was opposed in all his measures by Becket, archbishop of Canterbury. The Roman pontiff, and the king of France, espoused the caue of this haughty prelate.—Henry, dreading the sentence of excommunication, submitted with reluctance; and Becket was soon after murdered at the altar (A. D. 1170) and canonized. Having soothed the pope, who threatened to avenge the archbishop's murder, the king undertook the conquest of Ireland; an enterprize which he had long meditated, and for which he had obtained a grant from pope Adrian IV. but which had been deferred by reason of his quarrels with the primate. This expedition proved successful. Though victorious in all quarters, and crowned with glory, this best and most indulgent of parents was obliged to maintain war against his own family. His sons rebelled, and were support,

ed by the kings of France and Scotland. This barbarous behaviour preyed on his spirits, and soon put a period to his life (A. D. 1189.)

RICHARD I. (Cœur de Lion, or Lion-hearted Hero) succeeded his father. This romantic prince embarked in the crusades. After a variety of adventures which occurred in his journey to Palestine, he defeated the Saracen emperor, Saladin, and arrived within sight of Jerusalem; but being abandoned by his associates, he was obliged to relinquish his enterprise, and to conclude a truce with the infidels. On his return to Europe, he was shipwrecked near Ragusa, and put on the habit of a pilgrim, with an intention of taking his journey secretly through Germany. He was betrayed, and delivered to the emperor, Henry VI. who had taken offence at Richard's alliance with Tancred king of Sicily. Thus the gallant king of England, who had filled the whole world with his renown, found himself, during the most critical state of his affairs (his brother John having formed a rebellion in his absence) confined to a dungeon in the heart of Germany, loaded with irons, and entirely at the mercy of his enemy, the basest and most sordid of mankind!* Upon his releasement from captivity, he declared war against France, in which he was killed, in the 10th year of his reign, A. D. 1199. Leaving no issue, he was succeeded by his brother

JOHN,—an odious tyrant. He lost his continental dominions; and soon after embroiled himself with the see of Rome, concerning the election of an archbishop of Canterbury. The kingdom was laid under the sentence of an interdict, and John excommunicated and deposed; but by his despicable submission to the Roman pontiff, (A. D. 1213) by which he became still more contemptible, was restored. The English barons, taking advantage of the king's meanness and debasement, had recourse to arms, and extorted from him *Magna Charta*, or the GREAT CHARTER, which was

* M. Paris, Chron. T. Wykes.

signed at Runnymede, between Windsor and Stains, (A. D. 1215,) a spot ever since deservedly celebrated, and ever hallowed by every zealous lover of liberty.—The perfidious monarch soon after attempted to recal the privileges he had granted. The barons invited the French to their aid, and swore fealty to Lewis, son of Philip of France. John died, universally despised, A. D. 1216. The principal barons agreed to acknowledge the authority of his son Henry III. and obliged Lewis to evacuate the kingdom.

HENRY III. was a weak and contemptible prince.—To this reign we are indebted for the first rude outlines of the British house of commons. A parliament was held at Oxford, (A. D. 1259) and returns ordered to be made, not only of two knights from every shire, but also of deputies from the boroughs.* A second order of men was then introduced into the national council.—The earl of Leicester rebelled; but, at the battle of Evesham, was defeated and killed.—Henry died A. D. 1272, in the 56th year of his reign, the longest in the British annals, but which had been one continued scene of disorder and anarchy.

EDWARD I. (Longshanks) his son, remarkable for the intrepidity of his character, succeeded. He confirmed Magna Charta, and attacked the Welch, who, unconquered by the Saxons, had preserved their independence. He obliged their prince, Lewellyn, after a desperate resistance, to submit—and united Wales to the crown of England, (A. D. 1282,) the principality of the king's eldest son. By a barbarous policy he ordered all the Welch bards to be collected together and put to death. Edward afterwards meditated the subjection of Scotland; but expired at Carlisle, A. D. 1307, in advancing to complete the conquest.

The feeble and indolent Edward II. though enjoined by his father with his latest breath to prosecute the war, and never to desist till he had finally subdued the king-

* Rymer, vol. i. M. Paris. Heming. Knyghton.

dom of Scotland, after a few weak efforts, relinquished the project. He disgusted the nation by his attachment to mean favorites. His queen, Isabella, entered into a conspiracy against him with one Roger Mortimer, her gallant, and other dissatisfied barons, who accused the king of incapacity for government, deposed and inhumanly murdered him in prison, by holding him down violently with a table which they flung over him, and thursting into his fundament a horn, through which they burnt his bowels with a red hot iron.* Thus perished the unfortunate Edward II.—a prince born to obey ministers, not to govern a kingdom.

Edward III. had spirit and abilities enough to avenge the death of his father. His mother's paramour, Mortimer, was seized by his order, and perished by the hand of the hangman. This youthful and ambitious monarch claimed the kingdom of France, in right of his mother, the daughter of Philip the Fair. A war with France ensued (A. D. 1338) the event of which was prosperous. His heroic son, called the Black Prince, from the colour of his armour, won the battle of Cressy, A. D. 1346. The French were again defeated at the battle of Poictiers, and John their king taken prisoner and brought to London. These splendid successes were of no real advantage to England. In the conclusion of Edward's life, his fortunes declined. An extravagant attachment to Alice Pierce, a young lady of wit and beauty, gave such general disgust, as to become the object of a parliamentary remonstrance. The king did not long survive the death of his amiable son, the prince of Wales. He expired in the 51st year of his reign; one of the longest, and though the latter days of it were indeed somewhat obscured by the infirmities and follies of age, yet it certainly was one of the most glorious, in the English annals.

His successor, Richard II. son of the Black Prince, was little able to recover what had been lost through the

* Walsingham. T. de la Moore.

dotage of his grandfather. A poll-tax of three groats a-head on every person, male and female, above fifteen years of age, excited a most formidable insurrection, headed by Wat Tyler, which was quelled by the prudence and courage of Richard. His spirited behaviour at this juncture raised the highest expectations concerning him. But the presages of youth are often fallacious! He was a slave to unworthy favorites. Having confiscated the estate of his kinsman, Henry duke of Lancaster, he rebelled against, deposed and murdered the king.* Thus began the contest between the houses of York and Lancaster.

The duke of Lancaster ascended the English throne under the name of HENRY IV. A. D. 1399. He was the son of John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, fourth son of Edward III. In his turbulent reign occurred little worthy of notice, except the act for burning the followers of Wickliffe, a secular priest educated at Oxford, who during the reigns of Edward III. and Richard II. had preached the doctrine of reformation.

HENRY V. his son, began his reign with applause. He had passed his youth in the riot of pleasure, debauchery and extravagancies of every kind; but on his coming to the throne, the cloud which his wild conduct had thrown over his character, vanished and it appeared brighter than if it never had been shaded by any errors. The first step of the young king was to suppress all party dissentions: he then, taking advantage of the civil disorders of France, determined to prosecute the English claim to the crown of that kingdom. He collected a considerable force, and gained the glorious victory of Agincourt, A. D. 1415. He pursued these successes, and having recruited his forces and finances, marched to the gates of Paris. A treaty of peace followed, in which Henry was nominated regent, and acknowledged heir to the crown; and marrying Catharine, the daughter of the French king, Charles VI. re-

* F. Walsingham. Froissard.

ceived the kingdom of France as her dowry. The glory of Henry, now at the height, was suddenly restrained by the hand of nature: he was seized with a malady, which the surgeons of that age wanted skill to treat with judgment, namely, a fistula, which put a period to his life in the tenth year of his reign.*

HENRY VI. was only nine months old when he was proclaimed king of England and of France. A weak and contemptible prince. The French monarch Charles VII. gradually recovered his kingdom. Joan of Arc, called the Maid of Orleans, a pretended prophetess, compelled the English to raise the siege of Orleans, and established Charles on his throne.—England was now rent to pieces by intestine commotions. The incapacity of the king appeared every day in a stronger light.—Richard, duke of York, descended by his mother from Philippa, only daughter of the duke of Clarence, second son of Edward III. aspired to the throne. Hostilities commenced; and, after various success, the duke perished in the battle of Wakefield, Dec. 24, 1460. Edward, his son, prepared to revenge his father's death. A bloody war succeeded, which terminated in the imprisonment of the unfortunate Henry, and the promotion of Edward duke of York to the throne.

The animosity between the two contending families became implacable; and the nation, divided in its affections, took different symbols of party. The adherents of the house of Lancaster chose, as their mark of distinction, the *red rose;* those of York assumed the *white.* And these civil wars were thus known over Europe by the name of the quarrel between the two roses.†

---

* Catherine of France, his widow, married soon after his death, sir Owen Tudor, a gentleman of Wales, said to be descended from the ancient princes of that country. She bore him two sons; the eldest of whom was created earl of Richmond; the second, earl of Pembroke. The family of Tudor, first raised to distinction by this alliance, afterwards mounted to the throne of England, in the person of Henry VII.

† Modern Europe.

EDWARD IV. having made his way to the throne through a scene of war, havoc, and devastation, endeavoured to establish himself by acts of tyranny and cruelty. Crowned king by the hands of Guy, earl of Warwick, Edward was ungrateful to his champion and benefactor. The earl, resenting his ungenerous conduct, rebelled, deposed the king, and replaced Henry on the English throne. Edward fled to Holland. This revolution was of short duration. The young king soon returned, and gaining the victory of Barnet, in which Warwick was killed, recovered his kingdom. From this time he sunk into indolence and pleasure. A violent distemper, occasioned by his irregularities, terminated his life, at the age of forty-two, A. D. 1483.

His son, EDWARD V. in his thirteenth year succeeded. This young prince, with his brother the duke of York, were privately assassinated by their uncle, Richard, duke of Gloucester, who usurped the throne.

The multiplied crimes and atrocious vices of this usurper and murderer, who was stiled Richard III. filled the kingdom with so much horror, that a conspiracy was formed in favor of the young earl of Richmond, A. D. 1470, who by his mother was descended from John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, son of Edward III. and was the only remaining branch of the Lancastrian family. Richmond encountered the tyrant at Bosworth, and obtained a complete victory. Richard fell, and the crown was placed on Henry's head.

HENRY VII. confirmed in his title by the parliament, immediately married the princess Elizabeth, eldest daughter of Edward IV. and thus united for ever the jarring claims of York and Lancaster. His administration was wise and politic. The singular enterprizes of Lambert Simnel (A. D. 1486) and of Perkin Warbeck (A. D. 1492) who were made to personate Richard duke of York, who had been murdered in the tower by Richard III. are the only events during this reign worth recording. He died of a consumption, at his favorite palace of Richmond, in the 52d year of his age, and the 23d year of his reign.

His second and only surviving son succeeded, under the name of HENRY VIII. Religious disputes form the important object of this period.—Wickliffe, in the reign of Richard II. was the first who combated in England the errors of the church of Rome. His doctrines prepared for a subsequent revolution of opinions; but he had few open followers. The intemperate passions of Henry were the immediate cause of the reformation in England. His affections having been estranged from his queen, Catherine, he solicited a divorce: the pope hesitated, and Henry prevailed on the archbishop of Canterbury to annul the marriage, as a necessary step before he could marry Anne Boleyn. The pope condemned the sentence of the archbishop, and Henry in return shook off the authority of the see of Rome, and declared himself head of the national church. The unfortunate Anne was beheaded on a charge of infidelity, after whom the king successively married Jane Seymour, Anne of Cleves, Catherine Howard, and Catherine Parr. His whole reign abounded in acts of violence and tyranny, from which the nation was happily delivered by his death, A. D. 1547.

During the short reign of his only son, EDWARD VI. the protestant religion prevailed.

MARY succeeded to the throne of England. The young, beautiful, and innocent lady Jane Grey, induced by her ambitious father-in-law, accepted the crown, and lost her head. Mary restored the Romish religion, and a most sanguinary persecution of the protestants filled the whole of this short, bigotted reign. Archbishop Cranmer; Hooper, bishop of Gloucester; Farrar, bishop of St. David's; Ridley, bishop of London; Latimer, bishop of Worcester; and several other protestant divines, suffered martrydom. The loss of Calais to the French, affected Mary so deeply, that she fell into a slow fever, which put an end to her inglorious reign.

The accession of her sister ELIZABETH was followed by a firm establishment of protestantism. A liturgy was framed, and the hierarchy settled by archbishops, bishops, priests, and deacons. The affairs of Scotland

are deeply intervoven with those of England during this reign, occasioned by the rivalship and personal enmity between Mary, queen of Scots, and Elizabeth. Mary was grandchild to Henry VII. by his eldest daughter, Margaret, and consort to the dauphin of France. Her attachment to the catholic religion was the principal cause of her misfortunes. A conspiracy formed by Babington, A. D. 1586, and the adherents of the church of Rome, for the assassination of Elizabeth, and the establishment of popery, to which Mary was accused of being privy, brought this amiable, accomplished, but unfortunate queen to the scaffold, A. D. 1587, a victim to the jealousy and fears of an offended rival: an act by which the English queen has for ever sullied the glory of her reign. Elizabeth's attention was now called to more distant dangers. Philip II. of Spain, determining to execute his ambitious project of the entire conquest of England, prepared a grand armada, vainly denominated Invincible, which was defeated, A. D. 1588, by the English fleet, under the earl of Effingham and sir Francis Drake. The earl of Essex, the queen's favourite, was sent as deputy-lieutenant to Ireland, to quell a rebellion which had been raised by the earl of Tyrone, who had assumed the title of king, A. D. 1599. Essex returned to England unsuccessful, and entered into a conspiracy against the queen, for which he was beheaded, A. D. 1600. The queen's affection for him was so violent, that she became pensive, peevish, and melancholy, and expired two years after, her body being totally wasted by anguish of mind and abstinence.

With Elizabeth ended the house of Tudor. The accession of the family of Stuart, in the person of her successor, James I. forms a memorable æra in the history of Great-Britain, and will furnish the subject of another chapter.

CHAPTER XIII.

James I.—Charles I.—Usurpation of Cromwell.—Charles II.—James II.—William III.—Anne.—George I.—George II.—George III.

By the accession of James I. who was the sixth king of Scotland of that name, and grandson of Margaret, eldest daughter of Henry VII. the two kingdoms were united, which had been divided from the earliest account of time, but destined by their situation to form one great monarchy. And by this junction of its whole native force, Great-Britain hath risen to an eminence and authority in Europe, that England and Scotland separately could never have attained.*

This prince came to the crown with high notions of the regal power, which often betrayed him into imprudencies and errors. The people began to aspire after a greater portion of liberty than they had hitherto enjoyed. The domestic tranquility was interrupted at the commencement of this reign, by the conspiracy of Cobham, Grey, and Raleigh. Their intention was to raise the king's cousin, Arabella Stuart, to the throne. The conspirators were executed. This was followed by the gunpowder treason; a plot which excited universal astonishment and horror. Its object was, the destruction of the king and parliament. This dreadful scheme was happily detected, and the authors of it were punished. The pacific disposition of James was unfavourable to the glory of the nation, and his attachment to young and unworthy favourites rendered him contemptible. He died A. D. 1625, in the 59th year of his age, and the 23d of his reign.

CHARLES I. succeeded to the crown of his father at a very critical period, and with ideas of the royal prerogative much averse to the spirit of the times. Unable to obtain supplies from his first parliament, for the prose-

* Robertson.

cution of a war in defence of his brother-in-law, the elector palatine, he quarreled with, and afterwards dissolving them, endeavoured to raise money by loans from his subjects. The new parliament that succeeded was less complying than the former: they framed a petition of rights, requiring the abolishment of loans from the subject, and taxes raised without parliamentary aid. To this the king reluctantly assented; but still continuing imprudently to levy the imposts on tonnage and poundage,* without a new grant, the commons urged this as a violation of the petition of rights, and were dissolved. A new parliament assembled, but being still less obsequious to the royal will, was once more dissolved, and the king summoned his fifth and last parliament. The discontents of the nation were now very great, and Charles, sensible of his errors, assented to a bill fixing the right of parliament alone to levy taxes, and consented to summons one every third year. His ministers the earl of Stafford and archbishop Laud, were impeached and beheaded. The conduct of the commons, hitherto laudable, became now unconstitutional and unjustifiable. They passed a bill to render their assembly perpetual, and arrogated to themselves the military and executive authority of the crown, the power of nominating the governors and lieutenants of all the fortified places, and declared it a breach of privilege to dispute the laws framed by parliament alone. The king issued proclamations against this usurpation. A civil war was the consequence, A. D. 1643. Charles was at first successful, but the decisive battle of Naseby, A. D. 1645, in which the royal army was totally defeated, gave the rebels the command of the state. Having in vain attempted a reconciliation, the king fled to Scotland, and was shortly afterwards delivered up by the commanders of the Scots army, for reasons best known to themselves! Cromwell, who had headed the parliamentary forces, which now consisted of a set of mili-

* Tonnage was a duty upon all wines imported: poundage was a duty imposed, *ad valorem*, at the rate of 12*d* in the pound, on all other merchandize whatsoever.

tary hypocrites and enthusiasts, seized the unfortunate monarch's person, and appointing a court of justice, proceeded with deliberate solemnity to the trial of his sovereign. The execution of this unfortunate prince, A. D. 1649, was followed by the dissolution of monarchy. The commons passed an act, abolishing kingly power as *useless*, *burdensome*, and *dangerous*, and annulled the house of peers.

A republican form of government was established on the ruins of monarchy, under the direction of the parliament; but the army very soon took the power out of their hands, and OLIVER CROMWELL, a private gentleman of Huntingdonshire, who had been appointed their commander-in-chief, usurped the government, with the title of LORD PROTECTOR of the three kingdoms. His administration was rigorous, but arbitrary. A slow fever put a period to his life, Sept. 3, 1658.

His eldest son, RICHARD, succeeded in the protectorship; but, from his weaknees and incapacity, could not keep it. On the first appearance of difficulties, he resigned the government, and Henry Cromwell, lord-lieutenant of Ireland, followed his brother's example.—Disorder and anarchy ensued. General Monk, then at the head of the army in Scotland, marched into England, procured the summons of a free parliament, and Charles, the eldest son of the unfortunate monarch, who had taken refuge in France, sent a declaration of indemnity and liberty of conscience to the House. They received it, and proclaimed him king, A. D. 1660.

The reign of CHARLES II. was the æra, of taste and genius; though his court was the residence of voluptuousness and prodigality.—Guided by the worst of ministers, his domestic administration was turbulent. He lived uneasy with his parliament, which, as he could not controul, he dissolved, and governed with absolute authority, and was at last poisoned. As he died without children, his brother, the duke of York, succeeded to the throne by the title of

JAMES II. He openly encouraged popery, and was himself directed solely by romish priests. He adopted

the most despotic measures, invaded every part of the constitution, committed the bishops to prison, and received the pope's nuncio in London. The nation, exasperated at these incroachments upon their civil and religious liberties, solicited the aid of the prince of Orange, nephew and son-in-law of James. He arrived in England, and being received with general satisfaction, James, abandoned by all, abdicated the throne, and retired to France.* The parliament settled the crown on the prince and princess of Orange, who were proclaimed sovereigns of Great Britain, &c. by the title of

KING WILLIAM and QUEEN MARY.—Both houses passed a bill, or instrument of settlement, which regulated the line of succession, and provided against the return of those grievances which had driven the nation to the fiercest extremity, and effectually secured from the future incroachments of the sovereign the most essential rights of the people. Thus was happily terminated the great struggle of privilege and prerogative, between the crown and the people, which commenced with the accession of the family of Stuart to the throne of England, and continued till their expulsion, when almost a century had elapsed. This revolution forms a grand æra in the English constitution.

The unfortunate monarch, having obtained assistance from the French king Louis, embarked for Ireland; but his attempt was not attended with success. The rebels were defeated near the Boyne, (A. D. 1690) and James returned to France.

William was a prince of great vigour of mind, firmness of temper, and intrepidity of spirit. He was making vast preparations for carrying on war against the French, who, on the death of James II. had, in violation of a treaty, acknowledged the son of that exiled prince king of Great Britain and Ireland, under the title of James III. when a fall from his horse threw him into a fever, which put a period to his life (A. D. 1702.)

* He died an exile in France, August 6, 1701.

ANNE, eldest surviving daughter of James II. and sister to queen Mary, succeeded to the English throne. Her reign was made illustrious by the success of her arms against France, under her general the great duke of Marlborough. She was married to prince George of Denmark, by whom she had several children; but none surviving her, George, son of Ernest Augustus, first elector of Brunswick, and Sophia, grand-daughter to James I. pursuant to the act of settlement, succeeded to the vacant crown, A. D. 1714.

The first and second years of the reign of GEORGE I. were disturbed by an invasion of the kingdom in favor of the pretender. This rebellion was fortunately suppressed, and the remainder of his reign was prosperous to his people, and glorious to himself. A declaration of war against Spain, for the protection of commerce, took place A. D. 1718. The success of the English brought on a suspension of arms. When peace was restored to the continent, England was thrown into disorder by the South-Sea scheme, and by other aerial projects for the increase of the national wealth, A. D. 1720.—The king died on the road to Hanover, and left the vacant throne to his son,

GEORGE II. At this time Great-Britain was in a most flourishing condition, both at home and abroad, and had a powerful influence in all the courts of Europe, Spain excepted; but a congress had been agreed to for terminating the differences between the two crowns, and for the general pacification of Europe, which was accomplished in 1729. The Spaniards, in violation of the treaty, continued to make depredations on the British commerce in America. This fired the nation with resentment, and brought on a declaration of war, which, on the part of the English, was attended with signal success. The French having assisted Spain, hostilities commenced between Great Britain and France. While war raged with fury on the continent, a rebellion broke out in Scotland, A. D. 1745. The young pretender, being encouraged by many of the principal Scotch families to land there, was received with open arms, his

father proclaimed king of Great Britain, and himself prince regent. Many persons of distinction embraced his cause. But the decisive battle of Culloden, A. D. 1746, put a period to this dangerous insurrection, and the pretender, after suffering incredible hardships, made his escape to France.

In the year 1748, the war with France and Spain was concluded, and the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle signed; but the French incroaching on the boundaries of the English provinces in North America, orders were sent to the governors of the British settlements to oppose force by force, A. D. 1754. War was accordingly declared.—Minorca was lost, and admiral Byng, who had been sent to the relief of it, was tried, condemned, and shot, for neglect of duty in an engagement with the French fleet, which covered the siege. This misfortune was most amply compensated by the success of the British arms in the reduction of Surat and Pondicherry, in the East-Indies. The English likewise made themselves masters of Guadaloupe, Quebec, Montreal, and every other place within the government of Canada; Goree, and the other French settlements on the river Senegal, in Africa. In the midst of these rapid and extensive conquests, George II. finished his long career of glory, dying on the 25th of October, 1760, in the 77th year of his age, and the 34th year of his reign.

His Britannic Majesty was succeeded in his regal and electoral dominions by his grandson, George III. in the 23d year of his age. He came to the crown beyond all dispute the most powerful monarch in Europe. The war was carried on with vigour. The island of Belle-isle, on the coast of France; Martinico (the most important of the French West-India islands) the Havannah, in the west; and Manilla, with the whole range of the Philippines, in the east, among other valuable acquisitions, submitted to the English. Hostilities continued till 1763.

In 1776, the colonies in North America declared themselves independent of Great-Britain. This circumstance involved England in a new war. France, Spain,

and Holland, joined the Americans. Peace was concluded between all the contending powers in 1783; when the independence of the United States was acknowledged by the British king and parliament. In the year 1793, England engaged in another war with France: at the commencement, the Spaniards and Dutch declared themselves on the side of Great-Britain; but one French army took entire possession of the Netherlands; and another, marching into Spain, compelled a change of politics in that kingdom. During this contest, the British were not always successful in their battles by land, but their naval victories were unprecedentedly splendid. The principal of them were, that of Lord Howe over the French fleet, on the 1st of June, 1794; that over the Spaniards, by Sir John Jervis, (now Lord St. Vincent) on the 14th of February, 1797; another in the same year, by Admiral Duncan, over the Dutch fleet, October 11th; and the total defeat of the French fleet in the Nile, by Admiral Nelson, on the 1st of August, 1798. On the 21st of October, 1805, the British fleet, consisting of 27 sail of the line and 4 frigates, under the command of Admiral Lord Nelson, engaged the combined fleets of France and Spain, off *Trafalgar*, near Cadiz, consisting of 33 sail of the line and 4 frigates, 18 French and 15 Spanish: after a desperate conflict of 4 hours, 19 of the combined fleet struck their colours, and a French 74 was blown up. In this memorable engagement, Admiral Nelson was killed about the middle of the action, by a ball in his left breast. From these, and a number of inferior conquests, nearly the whole of the French, Dutch, and Spanish marine, have fallen into the hands of the British.

The union of Great-Britain and Ireland took place on the 1st day of January, 1801; and the Imperial Parliament met at Westminster, on the 22d of January, in the same year.

From the late failure of the coalition, upon the continent, Great-Britain must now contend with the gigantic power of France, and probably with a part of that very coalition, single handed.

The official return of the volunteer force in England, as made out at the war-office, on the 4th of November, 1804, states the whole number to be three hundred and thirty-five thousand two hundred and nine effective men; of whom two hundred and ninety-seven thousand five hundred and two are infantry, thirty-one thousand five hundred cavalry, and six thousand two hundred and seven artillery; making, with the regulars and militia, an army of *five hundred thousand.*

From this statement, we should naturally draw the conclusion, that if the emperor of the French, in an evil hour, should seriously attempt to invade England, and by some astonishing caprice of fortune, evade its "wooden walls," he will meet with a warm reception, from so many sturdy *John Bulls*, aided by heroic *sans-culottes* Caledonians, and the gallant sons of *Hibernia.* Let us rather hope——

> That blood and carnage will subside,
> And Europe's sons in peace abide:
> That commerce, like the wind, be free,
> And mankind live in unity:

However desirable such an event may be, we can never expect the consummation of our present philanthropic wishes, till the gospel of truth (which inculcates fraternal benevolence towards our fellow men of every hue and clime) shall influence the minds of the rulers of nations.

Ancient history furnishes us with numerous instances wherein rulers *have felt power and forgot right.** What the emperor of the French has recently done, and is doing by *land*, and Great-Britain by *sea*, fully corroborates what the historic page relates of the natural tendency of the human mind to inordinate ambition and the abuse of power.

LANGUAGE.—The English language is compounded of several others, but more particularly of Saxon, Celtic, French, and Latin; but the former predominates. This, instead of rendering it defective, gives it innume-

* The American government has hitherto been an honourable exception.

rable graces, since it has incorporated most of the beauties, and rejected the defects of the languages of which it is composed. Hence, it is said, to be more energetic than the French, more manly than the Italian, more copious than the Spanish, and more elegant than the German.

RELIGION.—The established religion of England is a protestant episcopal church; but all sorts of religions are either connived at or tolerated. The king of Great-Britian is acknowledged as supreme head of the Anglican church, governed by two archbishops and twenty-four suffragans, each of these enjoying the title of lord, and have precedent immediately after viscounts, in parliament, &c. The two archi-episcopal sees, are those of Canterbury and York. The archbishop of Canterbury is stiled the primate of all England, is the first peer in the kingdom; precedes all dukes and great officers of the crown, next to the royal family; and performs the ceremony of the coronation.

A short delineation of the English constitution as it stands at present.

The *legislative* power resides in parliament, and the constituent parts of parliament are king, lords, and commons. Each house has a negative on the other, and the king on both.

The *executive* power of government is lodged in the crown—the king is the chief magistrate—the chief of all courts of judicature—the fountain of honor—superintendant of commerce—head of the church—commander-in-chief of the sea and land forces—arbiter of peace and war—and responsible to no judicature.

These powers of the crown are thus limited and restrained: The king is dependent on parliament for all subsidies—the parliament must be assembled once in three years—the king cannot alter the established religion—he cannot interfere with the courts of judicature in the administration of justice—cannot alter the standard of money—cannot raise land forces, without the consent

of parliament.—The king's ministers are responsible for all public measures. Freedom of debate in parliament cannot be questioned, &c. &c.

CHAPTER XIV.

SPAIN.

Under the Carthaginians,—The Romans,—The Vandals,—And the Moors.—Arragon and Castille under Ferdinand and Isabella.—Expulsion of the Moors—Discovery of America.

At the western extremity of the ancient world, is situated Spain; once a great and powerful kingdom. It has, in every age, invariably preserved the same natural limits; the Pyrenæan mountains, the Mediterranean, and the Atlantic Ocean.

Its native inhabitants were divided into a number of small independent tribes, of which those called the Celtiberians, Cantaberians, and Asturians, were the most powerful.

Prior to the conquests of the Carthaginians, we know nothing of the transactions of these barbarians. This opulent and powerful state subdued all the southern parts of Spain, where they built Gades, now called Cadiz. They were dispossessed by the Romans, b. C. 191, who gradually reduced the whole country to a Roman province, in which situation it flourished four centuries under the protection of the emperors.

During this period, Spain enjoyed perfect tranquility and domestic happiness. Its cities were numbered with the most illustrious of the Roman world. The various plenty of the animal, the vegetable, and the mineral kingdoms, was improved and manufactured by the skill of an industrious people; and the peculiar advantages of naval stores contributed to support an extensive and profitable trade.

On the decline of the Roman empire, in the beginning of the fifth century, this remote and sequestered country became a prey to the Suevi, the Vandals, and the Alani; barbarians that poured with an irresistable torrent from the frontiers of Gaul to the sea of Africa, and fixed their permanent seats in the depopulated country. In the division which they made of the kingdom, Gallicia was shared between the Suevi and the Vandals; the Alani were scattered over the provinces of Carthagena and Lusitania, from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic Ocean; and the fruitful territory of Bœtica was alloted to the Silingi, another branch of the Vandalic nation.*

At the request of the Roman emperor, Honorius, the Gothic king, Adolphus† (or Athulosus,) who had married his sister Placidia, A. D. 414, turned his arms against the barbarians of Spain, whom he subdued, and founded the kingdom of the Goths, called the Visigoths,‡ A. D. 411. His palace was at Barcelona.

The last of the Gothic kings in Spain was Roderic.§ The Mahometan religion was already established in many countries. Mahomet, its founder, who had erected at Mecca a spiritual and temporal kingdom, died in 632; and his countrymen, the Arabs or Saracens, soon after over-ran great part of Asia. They were masters of Mauritania,‖ now Barbary, when count Julian, whose daughter king Roderic had dishonored, implored their aid. With a powerful army they crossed the Straits, invaded Spain, and, by the decisive battle of Xeres in Andalusia, A. D. 712, subverted the kingdom of the Visigoths, in that region of Europe. Muza, viceroy of Africa, under the caliph Walid, completed the conquest of Spain.

A small remnant of the Gothic monarchy maintained itself among the mountains of Asturia, where Pelagius,

---

* Idacius. Mariana. Gibbon. Playfair.
† Brother-in-law of Alaric.
‡ Or Western Goths: Ostrogoths were those who settled east.
§ Isidor. Chron. Goth. &c.
‖ From thence called Maures, or Moors.

the successor of Roderic, retired in the year 718, with a multitude of Christians, and founded the little kingdom of Asturias, or Oviedo, as it was afterwards called, which he defended by his valor, and transmitted to his posterity. Garcias Ximenes also, in 758, founded the kingdom of Navarre, which became one of the most considerable Christian principalities in Spain.

Spain, thus conquered by the Saracens, was alloted to governors dependent on the viceroy of Africa till 750, at which time a revolution happened in the Mahometan government, which gave birth to another in Spain. Civil wars arose among the Moslem themselves, which the caliphs, or vicars, the successors of Mahomet, were unable to quell. At length that august dignity, which included both the highest regal and sacerdotal eminence, passed from the family of the Omniades to that of the Abassides.*

ABDURRAHMAN, called also Almanzor, a prince of the Omaad line, not finding himself secure in Africa, fled into Spain, where he founded an independent kingdom, including all the provinces that had been subject to the Moorish government. He fixed his residence at Cordoua, which he made the seat of the arts, of magnificence, and pleasure. This family kept possession of the throne about 300 years.

In the beginning of the eleventh century, the race of Abdurrahman being extinct, the kingdom of Cordoua was dismembered. The haughty grandees usurped the title of king, and many petty principalities were founded on the ruins of this great empire. Toledo, Valentia, Seville, Saragossa, and almost every city in Spain, were governed by an independent sovereign. The provinces were changed into kingdoms, which multiplied in the same manner among the Christians, who had a king of Leon, of Navarre, of Castille, of Arragon, &c. &c.

In this divided state, Spain long remained; and wars were continually carried on between the Christ-

* Modern Europe.

ians and Moors. This was the age of gallantry and knight-errantry.†

In the 15th century, all the kingdoms in Spain, Portugal excepted, were united, by the marriage of Ferdinand, king of Arragon, to Isabella, sister of Henry IV. king of Castille. In 1492, Ferdinand conquered Grenada, which completed the extinction of the kingdom of the Moors in Spain, after it had continued about eight years. The expulsion of the Jews followed, and the establishment of the inquisition prevented their return. Ferdinand took the title of King of Spain and Catholic Majesty.

At this time Christopher Columbus, patronised by the Spanish queen Isabella, sailed from the port of Palos in Andalusia, and discovered the Archipelago of America, to which he gave the name of West-Indies. In a second and third voyage he discovered the continent of the New World, to which Americus Vespusius afterwards gave his own name.

CHARLES I. grandson of Ferdinand by his daughter Joanna, who had married Philip, archduke of Austria, succeeded to the crown of Spain in the year 1516, and was afterwards elected emperor. After a long and turbulent reign, he formally resigned the crown to his son Philip II. January 1556, and shut himself up in a monastery, where he died.

PHILIP II. thus became possessed of Spain, the Netherlands, and some Italian states, together with all his father's dominions in Africa and America. The reign of this monarch is an interesting object of attention. He was a gloomy, jealous, haughty, vindictive and inexorable tyrant. He married Mary of England, and

† Besides the many kings at this time in Spain, who amounted to near the number of twenty, there were also many independent lords, who came on horseback completely armed, and followed by several 'squires, to offer their service to the princes and princesses engaged in war. The princes with whom these lords engaged, girded them with a belt, and presented them with a sword, with which they gave them a slight blow on the shoulder; and hence the origin of knight-errants, and of the number of single combats which so long desolated Spain.—*Turner.*

by his influence involved that kingdom in a war with France. Italy and the low countries were the scene of hostilities; and the French being defeated by the combined armies of England and Spain, in the famous battle of St. Quintin, Philip erected the Escurial, a palace in the neighborhood of Madrid, in honor of the victory. Zealous for the catholic religion, he resolved to extirpate heresy from his dominions. A sanguinary persecution followed; and seven provinces of the Netherlands formed a league of union in the common defence of their civil and religious liberties. They chose William I. prince of Orange, their general, admiral, and chief magistrate, with the title of Stadtholder. This treaty was signed at Utrecht, A. D. 1579. On the death of Don Henry, king of Portugal, there arose a competition for the vacant throne. Philip, victorious over his competitors, obtained that kingdom, and annexed it to his own dominions, A. D. 1580. The Spanish monarch afterwards projected the conquest of England, and equipped the Invincible Armada. The Spaniards were defeated, and their armament totally destroyed. In the midst of forming new plans for the support of popery, Philip died, A. D. 1598.

Spain, which during the reign of Philip II. had been one of the most formidable powers of Europe, declined in her influence in the succeeding reigns.

PHILIP III. succeeded to the crown. The finances were in a most disordered state. He was compelled to conclude a disadvantageous peace with the Dutch. He expelled the remaining Moors and Jews from Spain; and his court became a scene of faction and intrigue.

Under PHILIP IV. who succeeded in 1621, the disorders of the kingdom increased. The losses and defeats of the Spaniards in all parts were very great. Brasil was taken by the Dutch, and Catalonia revolted to France. Portugal, exasperated with the load of their taxes, rebelled. The duke of Braganza* caused him-

* Whose grandfather had been deprived of his right to the crown of Portugal by Philip II.

self to be proclaimed king, and was acknowledged by the whole nation under the title of John IV. From this period, Portugal has been independent. He died A. D. 1665, leaving the Spanish crown to his infant son,

CHARLES II. two years old. His continual sickly bad state of health made his death daily expected. There being no prospect of issue, a secret treaty of partition was entered into by William of England, Louis of France, and the states of Holland, that on the eventual demise of the king of Spain, his dominions should be divided among them. Charles, to defeat this scheme, signed a will, by which he left the whole to Philip duke of Anjou, second son of Louis, dauphin of France, who succeeded under the name of

PHILIP V. The emperor* refusing to acknowledge his title, entered into a treaty with the king of England, and the States General of the United Provinces, the avowed object of which was, "To procure satisfaction "to his imperial majesty, in regard to the Spanish succession; to obtain security to the English and Dutch "for their dominions and commerce; to prevent the "union of the two great monarchies of France and "Spain; and to hinder the French from possessing the "Spanish dominions in America.†" This confederacy, which was called the GRAND ALLIANCE, kindled the flames of war, and involved great part of Europe in blood, till the peace of Utrecht, A. D. 1713, confirmed him in his dignity. This weak but virtuous prince, the first of the house of Bourbon who sat on the Spanish throne, died 1746, leaving the crown to his son,

FERDINAND VI. a mild pacific prince, whose reign is, in consequence, barren of events. He was thrown into a deep melancholy by the death of his queen, and breathed his last on the 10th of August, 1759.

---

* Philip IV. left two daughters; the eldest, Maria Theresa, married to the king of France, and the other to the emperor; both these princes, therefore, took up arms about the right of succession.

† Voltaire, Lamberti, De Torcy, &c.

His brother, CHARLES III. succeeded to the government of Spain. In 1761, he entered into a correspondence with the court of Versailles, which terminated in the famous FAMILY COMPACT, concluded by the four sovereigns of the house of Bourbon, against England and her allies. This compact produced mutual declarations of war by the courts of London and Madrid, and the greatest preparations were made by both for commencing hostilities with vigour and effect. The year following terminated the war, and restored peace to Europe. The year 1767 is memorable for the expulsion of the Jesuits. Spain renewed hostilities with England in the year 1779, and failed in the favourite object of the war, the recovery of Gibraltar. Peace was concluded with England in 1783, and Charles III. died, and was succeeded by his son,

CHARLES IV. who is the present reigning sovereign. The indecent reception of the interference of the court of Madrid in favour of Louis XVI. and the subsequent execution of that unfortunate monarch, induced his catholic majesty to declare war against France on the 22d of March, 1793.

The repeated defeats of the Spanish armies by the French, obliged his catholic majesty, in 1795, to detach himself from the confederacy. This conduct gave the greatest pleasure to the generality of the Spanish nation; France was delighted with so great a dimunition of the coalition, and a treaty of peace was concluded at Basle, in the month of July, by which his catholic majesty ceded all his part of Hispaniola, in the West-Indies; and the convention agreed to restore all their conquests in Spain. It was also agreed that Spain should recognize the French and Batavian republics.

Towards the close of the year 1796, Spain was drawn into an alliance with the French republic, and persuaded to declare war against Great-Britain. Spain is at present at war with Great-Britain; and so great is the influence of the emperor of the French over the king of Spain, that he dare not make peace without his permission!

RELIGION.—The religion of the church of Rome is practised in Spain with the greatest scrupulosity and pomp. In no country is there more praying and ceremony, and less real christianity. The Spaniards are indeed mere slaves to the clergy, who so artfully hoodwink them, that they do not perceive the chains they wear; or, if they perceive them, bear them willingly; and, when they gall them, dare not so much as vent a sigh after freedom. Under any disappointment, either in views of avarice or ambition, the clergy have their dreadful inquisition at hand, which seizes both on honour and life; so that the most unspotted innocence esteem it a great favour to come off only with the loss of their fortune. But the power of this horrible and tyrannical tribunal is now much reduced by the interposition of the late and present kings of Spain.

CHAPTER XV.

PORTUGAL.

Ancient Inhabitants—Discoveries of the Portuguese in the Fifteenth Century—Freed from the Spanish Yoke.

The kingdom of Portugal now fills the place of the warlike country of the ancient Lusitanians, in that great peninsula at present so unequally divided between two sovereigns, and shared the fate of the other Spanish provinces in the fall of the Roman empire, being successively subject to the depredations of the Suevi, the Goths, and the Moors.

It regained its liberty about the middle of the twelfth century, by the valour of Henry of Lorraine, grandson of Robert king of France. This young prince assisted Alphonso, king of Castile and Leon, so effectually against the Moors, that the Castilian monarch rewarded him with Theresa, his natural daughter, and that part of

Portugal which had been recovered by the Christians from the Saracen invaders, with the title of Earl, for her fortune.

His son Alphonso Henriquez succeeded as earl A. D. 1095; and having obtained a decisive victory over five Moorish kings,* July 25, 1129, his soldiers proclaimed him king, and the holy see confirmed his regal dignity.† The kings of Portugal, like those of Spain, long spent their force in combating the Moors, and had no connexion with the rest of Europe. A detail of those barbarous wars would be equally void of instruction and amusement. I shall therefore only observe that the succession continued uninterrupted in the house of Alphonso, till the death of Ferdinand, in 1383, when John of Castile, who had married the infanta of Portugal, claimed the crown, as the king had left no male issue. But the states of Portugal, after an inter-regnum of eighteen months, gave it to John, natural brother of their deceased sovereign.

This JOHN, surnamed the Bastard, no less politic than enterprising, proved worthy of his new dignity.—Under the direction of his son, prince Henry, a bold and enlightened genius, the Portuguese first projected discoveries in the Western Ocean. The island of Madeira A. D. 1442, the Azores, and the Cape de Verd islands, were discovered, and added to the dominions of Portugal.

His great grandson, JOHN II. a prince of the most profound sagacity and extensive views, first made Lisbon a free port. The Portuguese under this reign prosecuted their discoveries with ardour and success. The river Zara, on the other side of the Line, conducted them to the kingdom of Congo, in the interior part of Africa, where they made easy conquests, and established an advantageous commerce A. D. 1484. Captain Diaz passed the extreme point of Africa, to which he

* On this occasion he assumed the present arms borne by the kings of Portugal; viz. five Moors' heads.

† Neufville, *Hist. gén de Port.*

gave the name of the *Stormy Cape;* but the king, who saw more fully the importance of that discovery, styled it the *Cape of Good Hope.*

EMANUEL adopted the plan of his predecessors. He sent out a fleet under the command of Vasco de Gama, who encircled the eastern coast of Africa, and ranging through unknown seas, happily arrived at the city of Calicut, on the coast of Malabar, on the higher part of the western side of the great peninsula of India A. D. 1498.* Other vessels were sent out under the command of Alvarez de Cabral A. D. 1580, who discovered Brasil, &c.

His son JOHN III. admitted the new-founded order of the Jesuits A. D. 1510, of which he was a member, previous to any other European prince.—He sent a multitude of missionaries to convert the eastern nations, and among the rest, the famous Francis Xavier, founder of the order.

SEBASTIAN, his grandson, began to reign A. D. 1557. Smit with a passion for military glory, this prince determined to signalize himself by an expedition against the Moors in Africa, where his ancestors had acquired so much renown, in which he and his army perished. Leaving no issue,

His uncle, cardinal HENRY, ascended the throne; who also dying without children, many competitors for the crown appeared; among whom were Philip II. king of Spain, nephew to Henry by the mother's side; the duke of Braganza, married to the grand-daughter of Emanuel; Don Antonio, prior of Crato, bastard of the infant Don Lewis; the duke of Savoy, the duke of Parma, Catherine of Medicis, and pope Gregory XIII. who, extraordinary as it might seem, attempted to renew the obsolete claim of the holy see to the sovereignty of Portugal. PHILIP prevailed over his rivals, and was proclaimed king of Portugal, Sept. 12, 1580.

Portugal remained sixty years under the dominion of the kings of Spain. Irritated by the despotic rule of

* Modern Europe. *Hist. Gén. des Voyages,* tom. i.

their Spanish governors, they had long sought to break their chain. At length the dissatisfaction became so general, that a plot was formed in favor of the duke of Braganza, whose grandfather had been deprived of his right to the crown by Philip II. The revolt began at Lisbon, December 1, 1664. John duke of Braganza was raised to the throne under the title of JOHN IV. almost without bloodshed, and Portugal became again an independent kingdom. The recovery of Brasil, which had been conquered by the Dutch, restored it, in a great measure, to its former lustre.

His son, ALPHONSO VI. succeeded in 1665, but, on account of his cruelties, was deposed, and the sceptre was transferred, A. D. 1668, to his brother,

PETER II. who, by a dispensation from the pope, married the daughter of his brother Alphonso. He reigned peacefully thirty years, and left the crown to his son,

JOHN V. under whose mild government the arts began to flourish.

JOSEPH II. his son, filled the throne on the death of his father, A. D. 1750. In this reign Portugal was visited by a more dreadful calamity than even war itself. A violent earthquake, November 1, 1755, laid the city of Lisbon in ruins. About ten thousand persons lost their lives, and many of the survivors, deprived of their habitations, and altogether destitute of the means of subsistence, were obliged to take up their abode in the open fields. But they were not obliged to perish. The British parliament, though pressed with new demands to prosecute a war they had just entered into against France, generously voted one hundred thousand pounds sterling, for the relief of the unhappy sufferers; and this noble instance of public liberality was enhanced by the manner of conferring the benefit. A number of ships, laden with provisions and cloathing, were immediately dispatched for Lisbon, where they arrived so opportunely, as to preserve thousands from dying of hunger and cold.†

† Smollet.

In the beginning of the year 1777, Joseph died, and was succeeded by his daughter,

MARY FRANCES ISABELLA, who married, by a dispensation from the pope, her uncle, Don Peter, brother to the late king, and is the present reigning sovereign; but the deranged state of her mind is such, that the kingdom is managed by a regency.

RELIGION.—The Portuguese, like the Spaniards, believe that Christianity was made known to them by the apostle James the elder: in their religious notions they are very bigotted. The Inquisition, which was introduced by king John III. and has since been set up in all the Portuguese dominions, except Brazil, is very active in detecting those they call heretics, and no less rigorous in punishing them. Impious, cruel, and inhuman as this tribunal is, yet its festivals or solemn burnings, called *auto da fe*, or the act of faith, used to afford the highest delight to the infernal bigots, who, while their fellow creatures, the supposed heretics, were burning in the flames, cried aloud, "Oh, what great goodness! Praised be the holy office!!" Blasphemy, sodomy, heresy, and the conversion of the Jews, at present come under the cognizance of this terrific tribunal.

POLAND.

Situation—Lech—Dukes—Woywoods—Cracus Piast—Third Race of Kings—Demolition.

POLAND, anciently called Sarmatia, is bounded on the north by the Baltic and the province of Livonia; on the east by Russia and Tartary; on the south by Hungary; and on the west by Germany.

This extensive tract of land being abdicated by its original inhabitants, who, on the fall of the Roman empire, joined the plunderers of the north, and migrated in hopes of obtaining a more fertile and cultivated

country, fell into the hands of a vagrant people, who, under LECH, had left the dreary coasts of the Cimmerian Bosphorus. This revolution took place, it is supposed, in the year of the Christian æra five hundred and fifty. His descendants kept possession for two centuries, under the title of Dukes. The events that we find recorded during this period, may be justly considered as fabulous.

On the extinction of the family of Lech, Poland was governed by twelve PALATINES, or WOYWOODS, who divided the kingdom into the same number of provinces, erected a kind of aristocracy, and in a great measure polished this rude and barbarous people. Parties and dissentions soon after arising, their former government, under a duke or prince, was re-established, and the supreme command given to CRACUS, who expelled the East-Franks out of his country, built the city of Cracow, and restored the republic to its tranquility, A. D. 700.

After his posterity (who enjoyed the ducal crown till the commencement of the ninth century) failed, anarchy and confusion for some time succeeded; at length the Poles, to put a period to the horrors of a civil war, invested PIAST, at that time a low peasant, with supreme power. He governed with singular success, and his family flourished for several ages after in Poland. It is remarkable, that all the natives of the country, who are chosen kings, are to this day called Piasts.

BOLESLAUS CROBRAY, the fifth in succession from Piast, having made great additions by conquest, solicited the emperor, Otho III. to erect his ducal dominions into a kingdom, for which he did the emperor homage, and agreed to hold his territories of him as a fief of the empire. This happened in the year 1000; from which time the sovereigns of Poland, who before had been satisfied with the title of Duke, assumed the more honourable appellation of King.

Little is recorded of the immediate successors of Boleslaus, except the civil wars and intestine commotions, which were very frequent.

With CASIMER III. A. D. 1370, the dynasty of the Piasts ended, after it had continued five hundred and twenty-eight years.

His nephew, LEWIS, at that time king of Hungary, succeeded to the throne of Poland. On his demise, his youngest daughter, HEDWIGIS was crowned queen. She married JAGELLO ULADISLAUS, duke of Lithuania, who was elected king, A. D. 1384, and annexed his paternal dominions to the Polish monarchy. This prince was the founder of the third race of sovereigns, called the Jagellonic line, which, though the crown is elective, sat on the throne till A. D. 1572, under whose administration, Poland, which had been till then a scene of anarchy, began to be of some consideration in the north.

On the death of Sigismund, the last of the Jagello family, without issue, two powerful competitors appeared; Henry, duke of Anjou, brother to Charles IX. king of France; and Maximilian, duke of Austria. Henry prevailed, A. D. 1574; but his brother dying the next year, he quitted Poland to ascend the throne of France.

He was succeeded, at the request of the Turks, by STEPHEN BATTORI, prince of Transylvania. This monarch governed with great wisdom; he instituted the two courts of judicature at Peterkaw and Lublin, and subdued the Cossacks. He was succeeded, A. D. 1586, by SIGISMUND III. the son of John, king of Sweden, by Catharine, sister of Sigismund II. who being afterwards elected king of Sweden, and aspiring to the crown of Russia also, was engaged in long and bloody wars, but was at length obliged to rest satisfied with the throne of Poland.

His son, ULADISLAUS, who succeeded him, A. D. 1632, saw the beginning of the fatal defection of the Cossacks. These people inhabit the borders of the Boristhenes, or Nieper, one of the largest rivers in Europe, which has its source in a morass, in the Walshouskei forest, runs in a great many windings through Lithuania, and empties itself into the Black Sea, between

Oczakow and Kilburn. The lives of these rude and uncivilized people are, in every respect, like those of the ancient Scythians and Tartars. All this part of the world, to the north-east of Europe, was then in a savage state. It was the exact image of the heroic ages, when mankind were contented with the necessaries of life, and pillaged those necessaries from their neighbours. The Polish nobility treated these Cossacks, after they had been conquered by Battori, as their vassals and slaves. These oppressions at length caused the whole Cossack nation to revolt; and, joining the Russians and Turks, for a long time they continued to commit horrid depredations on the territories of Poland.

Uladislaus died without issue. He had two brothers, both in holy orders; the one a cardinal, the other bishop of Breslau and Kiow, who pretended to the vacant throne.

JOHN CASIMIR, the cardinal, was elected in opposition to his brother. This prince having been spectator for upwards of twenty years to the desolation of his kingdom, by factions at home, and by the incursions of the Swedes, Russians, and Cossacks, abdicated the government, and retired to Paris, where he died abbot of St. Germain des Pres A. D. 1687.

Poland was equally miserable under his successor MICHAEL CORIBUT, whose reign was one continual series of misfortunes. The Turks conquered Podolio, and Volhinia, and became so formidable that Poland could not support itself, but by becoming tributary to the Ottoman Porte. The grand maréchal (general) of the crown, John Sobieski, washed out this stain in the famous and bloody battle of Chockzim, in which the Turks were totally defeated, and Poland delivered from its tribute.

This signal victory secured Sobieski's election to the crown on Michael's death. This martial prince entered into an alliance with the emperor of Germany, for the common defence of the Christian cause against the Turks. He defeated them with great slaughter, and obliged them to raise the siege of Vienna with the ut-

most precipitation, leaving behind them their tents, artillery, and baggage. Sobieski died, after a glorious reign, A. D. 1696.

FREDERIC-AUGUSTUS, elector of Saxony, was next chosen king, in opposition to his competitor, the prince of Conti. The state was at this time distracted by the most violent convulsions. Augustus having entered into an alliance with Peter I. of Russia, against Charles XII. king of Sweden, the Swedish monarch resolved to dethrone him. After having experienced the greatest reverses of fortune, Augustus was compelled to resign the crown in favor of Stanislaus Leczinski, prince of Posnania, supported by the king of Sweden, A. D. 1705. Peter, czar of Russia, chastised the arrógance of Charles; and after the famous battle of Pultowa, in which the king of Sweden lost in one day the fruits of nine years successful warfare, invited the elector of Saxony to re-ascend the throne.—Stanislaus was thus forced to relinquish his authority, and Augustus found himself once more in possession of the Polish throne.

On his death,* Stanislaus (now become father-in-law to Lewis XV.) was a second time chosen king. But the emperor, assisted by the Russians, obliged the Poles to proceed to a new election. The elector of Saxony, son of the late king of Poland, who had married the emperor's niece, was invested with the sovereignty, under the name of AUGUSTUS III. and Stanislaus, as formerly, was forced to abandon his crown.

After the death of Augustus, which happened A. D. 1763, a diet was summoned to deliberate on the election of a new king. The principal candidates for the crown were prince Czartorinski, count Poniatowski, General Braniki, and prince Xavierus of Saxony son of the former king. After several tumultuous meetings,

* A. D. 1733. Augustus was endowed with extraordinary bodily strength, a sound understanding, a social disposition, and many princely accomplishments. It was this Augustus who in a fit of galantry twisted a horse-shoe in the presence of a fine woman, in order to give her some idea of his personal powers; and at the same time presented to her a purse of gold, to make her sensible of his generosity. Love perhaps never spoke a more eloquent language

count Poniatowski was, by the influence of Russia, proclaimed king, A. D. 1764, by the title of STANISLAUS-AUGUSTUS.

The reign of this monarch was one continued scene of confusion and distress; and, in the year 1792, the same power that elevated him to the throne was the cause of his overthrow. It was to no purpose that he had formerly been one of the paramours of the empress of Russia. Lust was a feebler passion than ambition, in the breast of Catherine. She had formed the design of subjugating Poland, and she was not to be turned from it, by either justice to the country, or tenderness for the favourite of her early years. The perfidy of the court of Berlin led it to become an associate of Russia; and the emperor of Germany soon joined in this disgraceful operation. The consequence was, that Poland is now no more; that unfortunate country has been partitioned amongst its rapacious neighbours. STANISLAUS died at Petersburg, on the 11th of February, 1798.

RELIGION.—The Poles were first converted from idolatry to the Christian religion about the year 964, by *St. Aldebert*, afterwards archbishop of Gnesna. The reformation began very early to make great progress in Poland, and the majority of the senators and nobility became members of either the Lutheran or Calvinistical communion. To remove all the dangers arising from different religious persuasions, a law was passed in the Diet of Valna, in 1563, by which every subject professing the Christian religion was entitled equally to the rights, privileges and immunities, as well as the honors and dignities of the kingdom. This law was confirmed five years after, at the Diet of Grodno, A. D. 1568.

The moderation which subsisted for a long time among the different persuasions was uninterrupted, and served as the strongest cement to the state; this close union was the more meritorious, as the most civilized and best regulated governments in Europe were at that period deeply embroiled in religious contentions. In-

1596, *Sigismund*, began his reign. He was a weak and bigotted man, educated by the Jesuits, and through his influence the Roman Catholics gained the ascendancy: During the whole of his long and inglorious reign he persecuted his Protestant subjects with unrelenting severity. By the new constitution of Poland in 1768, the Catholic faith was declared to be the established religion of the country, with a toleration to all religious persuasions.

CHAPTER XVI.

ITALY.

THE ancient inhabitants of Italy were the triumphant conquerors and rulers of the world. The softer arts have now taken place, and seem the chief employment of the modern Italians. Painting was indeed introduced at Rome by Caius Fabius, and was brought to considerable perfection before the time of Augustus; but a corrupt taste soon after prevailing, the politer arts were obliterated, and by degrees sunk into oblivion. Since the decay of the Roman empire, painting paid Italy a second visit, and the masters that excelled in it for a long time preserved an unrivalled reputation.

Italy has produced great men in all sciences, and formerly gave birth to those generals, orators, poets, and historians, whose actions and writings will be revered as long as manly fortitude, polite learning, and elegant composition, are considered as the ornaments of human nature. Yet its state of literature cannot now be deemed considerable, though encouraged not only by several universities, but by a multiplicity of academies or literary societies, which are to be found in almost every city.

The Italian language was originally derived from the Latin, with which the many nations of Goths, Huns, Vandals, &c. that overran Italy, so mingled their dia-

lect as to give birth to a new language, at first very harsh, but gradually polished, and softened into its present agreeable smoothness. Its genius seems particularly adapted to poetry and music; for which the Italians are also famous; and hence the Italian singers are more admired and more liberally paid than those of any other nation.

The Popish is the only religion generally tolerated in Italy, and here the pope has his seat, in quality of head of the church of Rome. The Jews indeed are indulged with a kind of toleration; but it is in most places under great restrictions; except that they enjoy an entire liberty respecting religion in the city of Leghorn.

The pope is chosen from among the cardinals; and before we describe the manner of his election, it will be proper to take some notice of those dignitaries. The word cardinal was a name common, in ancient times, to the presbyters and deacons of great churches; but in the eleventh century the presbyters and deacons of the church of Rome restricted the appellation to themselves, and their power increased in proportion to that of the pope. The first dawn of their grandeur appeared under pope Nicholas II. who began his pontificate in the year 1058. Innocent IV. at the council of Lyons, in 1243, gave them the red hat; Boniface VIII. the red vestments, about 1294; and Urban VIII. in 1631, the title of Eminentissimi, but before they were only styled Illustrissimi. Sixtus V. at the council of Basil, fixed their number at seventy, in allusion to the number of Christ's disciples; but this number is seldom complete.

The conclave is the theatre on which the cardinals principally display their genius and address. The decease of the pope is made known to the people of Rome by tolling the great bell of the capitol, firing the cannon of the castle of St. Angelo, and opening the prisons; and, soon after, circular letters are sent to foreign cardinals by the cardinal cammerlingo to invite them to the approaching conclave. Mean while the cammerlingo acts as regent, is attended by the pope's life-guard, and orders every thing necessary for opening

the conclave, which is held in the galleries and some of the anti-chambers of the Vatican, and consists of a number of small rooms, separated by wooden partitions, and distributed by lot both among the cardinals then in Rome, and those that are absent. Each has usually two, one for himself, and one for two attendants called conclavists.

On the eleventh day after the pope's demise, all the cardinals in the city meet in the morning, at St. Peter's church, where the mass Sancti Spiritus is celebrated; and after a sermon on the duties to be observed in the election of a pope, they proceed two by two into the conclave, which is then shut up by the governor and marshal of the conclave, none being let out, unless in case of illness, till a new pope is elected, and the person so let out is not allowed to return. The governor of the conclave is always previously chosen by the cardinals, and, together with the marshal, resides at the entrance of the Vatican, and without their express licence no person is suffered to go in or out.

While the cardinals sit in conclave, refreshments are brought them in baskets, or boxes, which are searched, though not with much strictness. Each cardinal orders his conclavist to write down on a slip of paper the name of the person to whom he gives his suffrage.—This is thrown into a chalice, on the altar of the chapel of the conclave, and two cardinals, appointed for that purpose, successively read aloud the notes, making the number of votes for every cardinal. He who has two-thirds is declared pope; otherwise the scrutiny is repeated till this number is complete. If this mode of election does not prove effectual, recourse is had to another, called *Accessus*, whereby the notes of the former scrutiny being set aside, every cardinal must give in writing his vote to another; and if by this way two-thirds do not appear, there is still another resource called *Inspiratio*, in virtue of which those of the cardinals who are unanimous come out of their cells and call aloud to each other, "Such a one shall be pope, such a one shall be pope;" upon which, others, to avoid incurring the

displeasure of the newly elected pope, frequently join in the cry, and thus the election is sometimes carried; but if this also fails, the scrutiny begins again, and a conclave in this manner sometimes proves a tedious and perplexed business.

The emperor, with the kings of France and Spain, are allowed to put a negative upon the person thus chosen to the popedom; but this protest must be made before the complete declaration of the votes for such a person. It is required that the pope be an Italian, and at least fifty years of age, though the age most commonly insisted upon is between sixty and seventy. When the election is over, and the pope elect has declared what name he will bear in future, the chief of the cardinal-deacons proclaim him to the people. His coronation with a triple crown is generally performed eight days after.

The revenues of the pope are very large, the countries of which he is sovereign as a temporal prince being considerable. No person in Rome must sell any wine or fruit till the pope and his nephews, as they are called, with their dependants, have disposed of what is consigned to them from their domains and estates. The annates, or first fruits and masses of the great consistorial benefices, the pallia, and investitures of archbishops and bishops, the jubilee year indulgences, dispensations, canonizations, promotions of cardinals, subsidies of the clergy, convent collections, &c. continually bring vast sums into the papal treasury from all Roman catholic countries. The annual income of the pope is generally computed at eight millions seven hundred thousand scudi; (or, 1,848,750*l.* sterling.)

In 1791, Pope Pius excommunicated those bishops, who admitted the ecclesiastical constitution established by the national assembly of France. This measure was treated with contempt by the French; it exposed the vanity of the pretensions of the pontiffs, and shewed how low their power was fallen. The effigy of Pius, clad in his pontifical robes, and holding in his hand the

brief of excommunication, was publicly burnt in Paris. Avignon was shortly after incorporated with France.

The court of Rome now joined the confederation against the Republic of France, in 1796. Bonaparte led his victorious troops over the Alps. He was every where successful, and the battle of Lodi decided the fate of Lombardy. Verona, Mantua, &c. quickly yielded to his arms. He menaced even imperial Rome! Terrified at this invasion of his territories, the pope sued for an armistice, which was granted to him on these, among other conditions—that his holiness should surrender to the conquerors a great many pictures and statues, and some hundreds of the most curious manuscripts, from the Vatican library.

But Bonaparte had no sooner retired, than the few French who remained at Rome, were insulted by the populace, at the instigation of the monks, and their lives greatly endangered. The court of Rome, also, began to use more haughty language; and by sending troops into the field, to infringe the treaty they had lately concluded.

In the following year (1797) a division of the French army, commanded by general Victor, entered the papal territories. The pope's troops, consisting of four thousand foot, and one thousand horse, posted on an advantageous ground, waited his arrival. The Senia was in front of their strong entrenchments; but as the season was dry, the French forded the river, and came upon their rear. They broke the line of the papal army at the point of the bayonet. After a defence by no means contemptible, the papal troops were routed; five hundred were slain and wounded, above a thousand made prisoners, and fourteen pieces of cannon taken. The loss of the French did not exceed one hundred men. This battle decided the fate of the ecclesiastical states. The banners of imperious France now waved triumphant over the patrimony of the church.

The pope was compelled to cede to the French republic Avigon and Venaissm, Bologna, Ferrara, and Romagna. He engaged likewise to pay thirty thousand

French livres to the republic, and to fulfil the conditions of the treaty of armistice formerly agreed to. In order to prevent the future power of the Roman pontiff, the newly ceded territories, together with those of Reggio and Modena, which have already confederated themselves, were now formed into one republic, while the Milanese, and other districts of Lombardy, were formed into another. Thus the power and importance once annexed to the see of Rome, were annihilated. Thus the influence of France in Italy was established on the surest foundation—the necessity of a faithful adherence to it by those states that depended on it for their preservation.

Joseph Bonaparte now arrived, as ambassador from the directory to the court of Rome; and with resolution and firmness, demanded that the pope should expel the French emigrants from his dominions, diminish his military force, and set at liberty all persons arrested for their opinions on political subjects.

The democratic party in Rome were now emboldened: they aimed not at the reformation, but at the total suppression of the papal government. In their endeavours, they requested assistance from the French ambassador, who, however, gave them no encouragement, and exorted them to desist from an attempt, which he represented to them as rash and impracticable, forbidding them, at the same time, to apply to him for countenance in any such undertaking. Notwithstanding this, trusting to the protection of France, in case of success, the revolutionary party assembled, on the 27th of December, 1797; but being hardly one hundred in number, they were entirely dispersed by the military, of whom however they wounded some, and killed two or three. In this affray the insurgents wore the French cockade, and a suspicion arose that they had acted at the instigation of the French; but the ambassador of the republic disclaimed all the individuals who, on that occasion, had assumed it.

In the afternoon of the same day the insurrection was renewed, and became more serious. About twenty

of the insurgents repaired to the palace of the French ambassador, and, proclaiming the Romans a free people, begged the protection of France. The ambassador ordered them to depart, and advised them to proceed no further in a frantic resistance to a government that was able instantly to crush them. Meanwhile the insurrection was increasing, and the invirons of his palace were filling with crowds, that shouted, "Live the republic, live the Roman people!" The ambassador now prepared to exert his authority to disperse the multitude; but before he could address them, they were fired upon, through the gates of the palace, by the military, who pursued the flying crowd into the court. The French ambassador, demanding by what authority they entered his precinct, bid them instantly retire. His orders were disregarded; they again fired upon the insurgents, and killed and wounded many of them. As they seemed preparing another volley, General Duphot, who accompanied the ambassador, marched up to them; but while expostulating with them, while seizing the musket of one, and preventing another from firing, he was shot through the body by a soldier, and when dead was treated with the utmost indignity. To avoid the fury of the soldiers, the ambassador and his attendants made the best of their way through a private path, that led to the gardens of his palace; there, on his return, he found many of the insurgents dead or wounded, and ordered the gates to be shut.

The French ambassador, however, retired to Florence, and the republican party at Rome began to consider itself in the certain road to success. They were not disappointed. Under pretence of avenging the affront offered to the French nation, in the person of its ambassador, General Berthier, with a large division of the French and Cisalpine army, marched to the city of Rome, and on the 11th of February, 1798, took possession of the castle of Angelo. A proclamation was now issued by Berthier, in which he declared the intent of his mission was to bring to justice the authors of the assasination of General Duphot, and of Basseville, se-

cretary of legation to the French embassy at Rome, in 1795, and to take the citizens of Rome under his protection. The insurgents soon after proclaimed the Roman republic, and planted the tree of liberty in the most public places of the city. In compliance with their desire, Berthier likewise entered the city in much state and splendour, and proceeded to the capitol, amidst an immense multitude. There, after invoking the manes of Brutus, Cato, Cicero, and other illustrious names of antiquity, he declared that the French republic, professing the principles of national sovereignty, acknowledged the independence of the Roman republic. The organization of the new commonwealth was immediately proceeded upon. Communes, principalities, and national guards, were, under the auspices of Berthier, instituted in every part of the Roman state, and liberty of conscience was allowed. On the entrance of the French into Rome, the Pope was confined in the Vatican, where he was guarded by five hundred men: seals were also placed on the apartments of all the pontifical palaces, and upon those of all the cardinals that were absent. A contribution of four millions livres in specie, two millions in provisions, and three in horses, were demanded. In order to secure the payment of this requisition, four cardinals, four bishops, and four princes, were detained as hostages.

In the year 1799 the aged father of the catholic church was torn from his retirement by the French, who now yielded to the triumphant arms of Suvorroff, and carried by them to Valence, whither as he passed through Dauphiny, he was every where received, by multitudes of people, with sentiments of sympathy, respect, and veneration. They fell on their knees, and demanded his blessing; which he bestowed in a kind, affecting, and graceful manner. After an indisposition of several days, he expired at Valence, on the 19th of August, in the 82d year of his age.

Not long after, General Garnier, French commander in Rome, surrendered the Roman territory, by capitulation, to the English commodore, Trowbridge; and in

the year 1800, notwithstanding the rapid conquests of Bonaparte, the papal government was restored. The conclave for the election of a successor to Pope Pius VI. was held under the auspices of the emperor, at Venice. The ecclesiastic honoured with the pontificate, was Cardinal di Chiaranionte, a man of good sense, and mild and unassuming manners. As it was customary for the new pontiff to assume the name of the pope who had promoted him to the dignity of cardinal, Chiaranionte took that of Pius VII. The emperor, on his election, presented him with a sum of money; but did not at first restore any part of the papal dominions. However, after the battle of Marengo, when he became apprehensive of the loss of his power and influence in Italy, he resolved to have the credit of delivering up to the Pope the greater part of the ecclesiastical state, rather than that it should fall into either the possession or disposal of other hands. Pius VII. took possession of the see of Rome in July, and began to exercise the functions of sovereignty with great dignity and moderation. He was soon after acknowledged by the French republic, and had the satisfaction to conclude with Bonaparte, the convention or concordat, (1802) which, under certain limitations, established the Roman catholic religion in France.

The pope, it is said, has been solicited to resign. The papal chair is to be occupied by *Bonaparte's Uncle* cardinal Fesch, who is to reside at Avignon and the states of the church, which together with the kingdom of Etruria (Tuscany) are to be united to the kingdom of Italy.

CHAPTER XVII.

HOLLAND.

The Netherlands, with that part of Germany which lies west of the Rhine, was possessed by the Romans, who called it Gallia Belgica: but upon the decline of the Roman empire, the Goths, and other northern people,

took possession of these provinces, as they passed through them in their way to France and Spain, and here erected several small governments which were a kind of limited monarchies. whose sovereigns were stiled dukes, counts or lords. These provinces were seventeen in number: viz. four dukedoms; Brabant, Limburg, Luxemburg and Guelders: seven earldoms; Flanders, Artois, Hainault, Holland, Zealand, Namur and Zutphen: five lordships; Friesland, Malines, Utrecht, Overyssal and Groningen; beside Antwerp, which has the title of marquisate of the Roman empire. The people enjoyed great privileges under these princes, who were contented with preserving them, because the smallness of their dominions made their greatest strength consist in the affection of their subjects; but afterwards, when all these provinces became subject to the house of Burgundy, which held large dominions elsewhere, the people were treated with less indulgence. From Burgundy they passed to the house of Austria: Charles V. was the first prince of this house, and, as he was king of Spain, emperor of Germany, and duke of Burgundy, he had different interests from those of his predecessors; and being engaged in a war with France, he brought foreign forces from his other dominions into the Netherlands, notwithstanding the express laws to the contrary.

At length the Reformation gaining ground here, that prince published very rigorous edicts against those who separated from the Romish church; and Grotius affirms, that during his reign above a hundred thousand persons suffered death for their religion; but the number and courage of those who embraced the doctrines of the Reformation, instead of being diminished by the horrors of persecution, daily increased, and sometimes the people rescued out of the hands of the officers those who were leading to execution. Thus the Netherlands became extremely alienated from the house of Austria, and their discontents increased on Charles' abdicating his throne in favor of his son Philip II. This prince, who treated his Flemish subjects with much more auster-

ty than his father had done, would admit only of the Polish religion; and a sanguinary persecution against the heretics, as they were called, was carried on with fresh rigour; a court, resembling that of the inquisition, was erected, and these cruelties were aggravated by insupportable taxes; but at the time when Philip left the Netherlands, he appointed the prince of Orange governor over four of those provinces.

The house of Nassau, of which the prince of Orange was, derives its chief title from the eleven counties of the principality of Nassau, in the imperial circle of the Upper Rhine.

These oppressions being exercised with the most tyrannical fury by Ferdinand of Toledo, duke of Alva, whom Philip had created governor, the Netherlands made a strong effort for their freedom, and William prince of Orange, in conjunction with his brother count Louis of Nassau, undertook the defence of the inhabitants, in their noble struggles for religion and civil liberty. Accordingly the states of Holland, in their own names, conferred the stadtholdership, a title equivalent to lieutenant, on the former, and several other towns and provinces declared for him. He first united them, in 1576, in one general association, under the title of "The Pacification of Ghent." But this union being soon dissolved, the prince laboured to the utmost of his power to form a more durable alliance, which he happily accomplished in 1579. In that year the celebrated league of Utrecht was concluded, which gave name to the *United Provinces*, and became the basis and plan of their constitution. The prince of Orange was afterwards on the point of being nominated the sovereign of these countries, but was treacherously shot in 1584, by an assassin named Belthazar Gerhard, who had assumed the name of Francis Guyon. This man was supposed to have been hired to perpetrate the murder by the Spanish ministry, but no tortures could force a confession from him. The United Netherlands, however, continued to maintain, sword in hand, that liberty to which they had raised themselves: queen

Elizabeth of England took them under her protection, and rendered them essential assistance. When the earl of Leicester, the favourite of that queen, was sent over by her to the Netherlands, in the year 1685, the states appointed him governor and captain-general of the United Provinces, or in other words their stadtholder; but his haughty carriage, and unskilful manner of conducting the war, soon rendered him unpopular, and the next year he returned to England. The Dutch, being afterwards better supported by the English, baffled all the attempts of the Spaniards, and their commerce arrived at such a pitch, that in 1602 their celebrated East India company was established; and Spain being both weakened and discouraged by the ill success of a tedious war, in 1609 agreed to an armistice for twelve years, and in the very first article of the treaty acknowledged the United Netherlands to be a free and independent state. During this truce the republic attained to a degree of power which it has never since exceeded.—These signal successes were principally obtained by the able conduct of prince Maurice of Nassau, the second son of the first stadtholder, and to the same dignity this prince was chosen when only twenty-one years of age. He conducted the affairs of the states, during twenty years, with great ability and success. The latter part of this prince's government was sullied by cruelty and ingratitude; for he procured the condemnation and death of the pensionary Barnevelt, to whose influence he owed his elevation. This man was sacrificed to his opinions, for he was an Armenian in religion and a republican in politics, but his death caused the political principles for which he suffered to spread more widely. Those who opposed the stadtholder were afterwards called "the Louvestein party," from De Witt, burgomaster of Dort, and five other members of the states general, being imprisoned in that castle for maintaining such sentiments.

In 1621 the war was again renewed, during which the stadtholder, prince Frederic Henry, youngest son of the first William, who succeeded on the death of his half brother prince Maurice, in 1625, greatly distinguished

himself. This war was brought to a period in 1648, by the peace of Munster, by which treaty Philip IV. king of Spain, renounced all claim to the United Netherlands.

In 1652 a war broke out between the United Provinces and England, which latter country was then brought under a republican form of government. This war was terminated two years after, by a treaty, in which the states of Holland engaged for ever to exclude the house of Orange from the stadtholdership of their province.

In 1665 another war was kindled with England, at which time that country had regained its regal constitution: this war continued until the treaty of Breda.—The states of Holland and West Friesland then passed an edict, by which they abolished the stadtholdership in their province. This was effected by the influence of the grand pensionary De Witt. When France formed a design to seize on the Spanish Netherlands, the United Provinces entered into an alliance with the crowns of England and Sweden for the defence of those countries: by which France was, in 1668, compelled to agree to the peace of Aix la Chapelle; but soon took a severe revenge by breaking that alliance, and inducing England, with some other powers, to enter into a league against the United Provinces, on which a war ensued. In this critical juncture the republic, in 1672, nominated William, the young prince of Orange, captain and admiral general: and the populace compelled the states of Holland to invest him with the stadtholdership, which two years after was declared hereditary in his family.

He was the fifth stadtholder and the third of that name: he married the princess Mary, eldest daughter of James II. of England, and became king of England.

In 1678 a peace was concluded with France, at Nimeguen; but it was of no long continuance, for in 1688, the states supporting their stadtholder in his expedition to England, with a fleet and a large body of troops, France declared war against them, which continued till the peace of Ryswic in 1697. At length, on the death

of Charles II. king of Spain, in the year 1700 the Spanish provinces fell to the share of the house of Austria, and the republic became involved in a war respecting that succession, which continued till the peace of Utrecht, in 1713.

William died king of England and stadtholder of the United Provinces in 1702. He appointed John William Frizo, prince of Nassau Dietz, his sole heir, who was born 1687, and was drowned in crossing an arm of the sea at Mardyke, 14th July, 1711. Three months after his death his widow was delivered of a son, who was christened William, and afterwards became stadtholder, but on the death of William III. that office was laid aside, until, in 1722, the province of Guelders elected him their stadtholder, notwithstanding the remonstrances of the other provinces.

In the general war which broke out in Europe in 1756, the Dutch, by taking no part in the quarrel, were perhaps the greatest gainers, supplying the belligerent powers with naval and military stores; and when the dispute between Great-Britain and the American colonies rekindled the flames of war, the most essential assistance was procured both to America and France, by means of the Dutch settlement at St. Eustatius, and of the freights brought by their ships. At length it was discovered, by the capture of an American packet, that a treaty between the American states and the province of Holland was actually adjusted, and that Mr. Laurens, late president of the congress, was appointed to reside at Amsterdam in a public capacity. This occasioned the court of London first to cancel all treaties of commerce and alliance which then subsisted between that kingdom and the United States, and soon after, in December 1780, to issue a declaration of hostilities against the republic. The resentment of Great-Britain proved extremely fatal to the possessions and wealth of the Dutch: the island of St. Eustatius, with a large fleet of valuable merchant ships, fell an easy prey to a naval and military force under the command of Admiral Rodney and General Vaughan; several homeward bound East-India

ships, richly laden, were either taken by the English or destroyed. *Negapatnam*, on the Coromandel coast, and their chief settlement on the island of Ceylon, were wrested from them.

CONSTITUTION.—The Seven United Provinces form seven republics, or independent sovereign states, united together for their common defence in a close alliance; but on condition that all shall enjoy their own respective laws, liberties, and privileges. As they are confederated and allied together, it is requisite that they should meet, in order to consult on the most proper method of promoting their common interest; but it being impossible for all the members of the several states to meet together, each particular state appoints some person to represent it; and the assembly of these representatives is called "The Assembly of the States General."

The States General, however, not only make peace or war in their own name, but send and receive ambassadors and other public ministers. The commander in chief, and all other military officers, take an oath of fidelity to them; and, during a war, some of their members, or of the council of state, follow the army, sit in the council of war, and their consent is requisite previous to any thing of importance being undertaken. In time of war the States likewise grant licences and protections.

Thus the States General appear at first view to be the sovereigns of the country: but most of these deputies are appointed only for a few years, and though they have the power of debating on the most important affairs that may tend to secure or promote the preservation or happiness of the state, yet they have not power to conclude any point of great consequence, without previously communicating it to their respective provinces, and receiving their express consent. This renders the resolutions of the republic so tedious and dilatory, as to tire the patience of those powers who have affairs to negociate with the states; but though this slow method of proceeding is attended with many inconveniences, it has some advantages: it affords leisure for caution and

mature deliberation, and is sometimes an unexceptionable pretence for protracting business, and waiting to see what events may turn up.

In the assembly of the States General each province presides weekly in its turn, beginning with Guelderland, who had the precedency before the union; then Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Friesland, Overyssel, and Groningen. He who is first named in the deputation of his province, presides, and is from that called the "*President* of the week." They sit throughout the whole year without adjournment, and their meetings are always held at the Hague.

The highest office in this country is that of *Stadtholder*, for he is at the same time governor-general of the Seven United Provinces, captain-general, and grand-admiral; but his power is extremely limited. He swears to obey the States General, and can neither make peace nor war without their consent. He may come to their assembly, to lay before them any business in which the public is concerned; but has not ordinarily a seat in it. He may pardon criminals condemned to suffer death, and has the right of choosing the magistrates of cities upon a double nomination of their respective senates, excepting only Amsterdam, with several other important privileges.

The title assumed by the States, is that of "High and Mighty Lords," or, "The Lords of the States General of the United Netherlands;" and in public addresses they are stiled "their High Mightinesses."

The council of state consists of twelve deputies of the several provinces, and their office is either triennial or during the pleasure of their principals. In this council the deputies of Holland have the greatest weight, that province being possessed of three votes, while none of the others have more than two, and some of them only one. The presidentship indeed is held alternately by the twelve members, each in their week. The title of this council is "Noble and Mighty Lords."

[*The foregoing History has reference to the state of this country previous to the French Revolution.*]

In the year 1791, the emperor of Germany seized the Dutch forts in the neighbourhood of Sluys, and demanded the opening of the Scheldt, and ordered a ship of his to sail down that river, and upon its seizure by the Dutch, lost no time in putting his army in motion, with all the appearance of commencing an immediate war. This demand of the emperor was finally settled by the Dutch paying ten millions of florins.

An intimate alliance was formed in 1784, between the courts of Versailles and the Hague, which stipulated that either party should supply the other with an auxiliary force upon being attacked. In 1785, the internal commotions on the United Provinces greatly attracted the attention of Europe. Two parties, for the last two centuries, had been continually struggling for superiority. The first of these was the family of Orange; the second, that of the states and of the town councils.

From the death of the patriotic De Witts, Barnevelts, and of William the second, the republic had declined, and instead of venerable patriots and distinguished conquerors, Europe had been accustomed to regard them as a nation of merchants, pursuing wealth, in contempt of every other quality and accomplishment. It is well known that the oligarchy, for a number of years previous to 1785, entertained the design of excluding the stadtholder, and of stripping him of his disproportionate authority.

The first efforts of liberty appeared in the city of Utrecht. The citizens formed the plan of entirely excluding the stadtholder from any influence in the nomination of the four governments; and at the same time to communicate to the people a certain degree of authority, and to share in the election of the senates and magistrates, as well as several other prerogatives of no considerable importance. The first measure adopted was to present a petition to the states of the province of Utrecht, demanding the abolition of the regulation of regency established in 1674, which was the foundation of the principal part of the obnoxious authority of the stadt-

holder in the election of the town governments, and by which he was accustomed arbitrarily to obtrude whatever person he pleased to a seat in the senate. Six deputies were appointed by the assembly of the magistrates of Amsterdam to mediate the differences which had arisen at Utrecht; and the projected reform was at length published, which was certainly intended as a conciliatory measure: but it was by no means attended with the success expected. The spirit of reform which began at Utrecht soon communicated its influence to other towns and provinces, and the violence of the people, at length, induced four of the council committee to send a requisition to the stadtholder, demanding a body of troops to restrain the citizens. The compliance of the prince of Orange with the demand of troops produced the most unbounded spirit of indignation and resistance in various parts of the republic.

The senate urged by the representatives of the people shut their gates, brought out the cannon of their fortifications, and prepared for resistance. The people were every where incensed at the conduct of the stadtholder, in endeavouring to silence their complaints, by the introduction of an armed force. The stadtholder now called upon the states to support him, but finding that he could obtain no answer to his remonstrances, he withdrew from the Hague on the 14th Sept. 1785, with a resolution never to return to the palace of his ancestors, till he should be reinstated in his prerogatives.

The troops had now yielded implicit obedience to the provincial assembly, and formed a border along the province of Utrecht; and soon afterwards the states passed a resolution, depriving the prince of Orange of the situation of captain-general.

The misunderstanding between the Stadtholder and the republic had now (1787) gone so far, that it did not appear possible to terminate it in any other way than by the sword. The king of Prussia and the court of France both tried to mediate. The refusal of any concession, however, by the Prince of Orange, brought the con-

ferences to a rapid conclusion. All the provinces were now nearly unanimous, in refusing to yield to the stadtholder's pretensions, but Utrecht was still distracted. Hostilities, however, soon commenced, when a rencounter happened between a party of the prince's forces and the volunteers of Utrecht, on the former attempting to secure the post of *Vreeswyck*, in which they were defeated. In the mean time a terrible riot broke out in Amsterdam, in favour of the stadtholder, which was with much difficulty suppressed by the association of the burghers, but not until much damage had been done to the persons and properties of the inhabitants. A general revolt broke out among the troops of the provinces; and for the purpose of co-operating with the revolters, the prince of Orange took the field with his little army, and encamped in the vicinity of Utrecht. While things were in this state, the princess of Orange, sister to the king of Prussia, a woman of a masculine, active, and adventurous character, undertook a journey to the Hague, from what motive never distinctly appeared, except, indeed the courts of Prussia and London wished for some more immediate cause to go to war than what had yet occurred. The princess was stopped in her journey by the deputies of the patriots, and compelled to return; upon which she wrote to the states of Holland, charging them with distrusting her intentions, and demanding an ample and public reparation for the insults offered her.

The military interference of Prussia had already been determined upon, and her armies had been put in motion. The states of Holland came to the resolution of suspending the prince from the functions of stadtholder. The duke of Brunswick, who commanded the Prussian forces, after several ineffectual remonstrances, at length began his march, which resembled more a triumph than a campaign. All the principal towns submitted upon his appearance; the volunteers were disbanded, and the deputies came to the resolution of restoring the stadtholder to all his honours and prerogatives, and of inviting him to repair to his former place of residence. Am-

sterdam for some time made an ineffectual resistance, but was at length obliged to surrender, together with every other place in the hands of the patriots.

Thus, after a short campaign, the prince of Orange made his triumphant entry at the Hague, and in the space of twenty days 20,000 Prussians overcame that republic which had so gallantly and successfully contended with Philip the Second for its liberties, and Louis the Fourteenth for its independence.

The revolution which occurred in France reinspired the hopes of the patriots, and obtained for them promises of support and assistance. Upon the execution of the king of France, the French ambassador was ordered to depart from the Hague; war was declared against Great-Britain and Holland jointly, but the complaints against the latter were solely confined to the prince of Orange, for ordering a Dutch squadron to join the English, &c. &c.

In 1793, the French sent an army under Dumourier, to expel the stadtholder. By the aid of the British troops, under the duke of York, the French were compelled to retire within their own territories.

In the year 1794, the French having been very successful against the Austrians, once more commenced their march towards Holland, under the command of two of their ablest generals, Pichegru and Moreau. Sluys was speedily taken, and the English repulsed at Boxtel. On the 19th of October the duke of York was attacked and defeated at Puffleck, after which he immediately retired behind the Waal with his army, while the invading army prepared to besiege the neighbouring garrisons, notwithstanding the advanced season of the year. Maestricht soon afterwards surrendered, as did Nimeguen on the 8th of November, after a short siege, though covered by the army of the duke of York. The discontented patriots now began to raise their heads; and the stadtholder, finding it impossible to resist the impending storm, desired leave to withdraw. He shortly after sailed for England, where he met with a hospitable reception.

In 1795, a French officer, with dispatches from general Pichegru, entered Amsterdam, and repaired to the house of the burgomaster. The tree of liberty was planted next morning, while De Winter took possession of the fleet which he was afterwards destined to command. A complete revolution was thus effected through the Seven United Provinces. Pichegru now entered Amsterdam in triumph, and was received with transports of joy. The principal cities were next occupied by French troops. The States General, yielding to imperious necessity, now negociated with the invaders, and issued orders to all the governors to deliver up all the fortifications on the first summons of the French, who, instead of disarming the garrisons, only required them to take an oath not to carry arms against the republic.

After the lapse of a short period, a treaty of alliance, offensive and defensive, was concluded between the republic of France and that of the Seven United Provinces. The conquest of Holland by the French, and the treaty of alliance which speedily followed this event, produced an entire change in the connection between that country and England. War was consequently declared by the latter, and a great number of Dutch vessels were detained, and all the property of that nation seized in England. All the Dutch colonies in Asia were also either obtained by stratagem, or seized after a short and ineffectual resistance. The capture of the Cape of Good Hope, in 1796, produced a considerable sensation in Holland.

Holland, or the late Batavian republic, has lately undergone another revolution, and is now recognized under the name of "the kingdom of Holland;" of which Louis Bonaparte, brother to the emperor of the French, is sovereign.

CHAPTER XVIII.

SWISSERLAND.

The ancient Helvetians were a Gaulish or Celtic people; and Helvetia, which received its name from them, was divided into four cantons or territories. Julius Cæsar first reduced the inhabitants under the dominion of the Romans, who founded colonies here; and their dominion continued till the fifth century, when the country was over-run by the Burgundians and Germans, and at length became united to the German empire; but about the year 1300 the emperor Albert I. not only refused to confirm their ancient privileges, without deigning to assign any cause for his refusal, but set over the Swiss two noblemen who were alike stigmatized for their avarice and arrogance; their administration becoming insupportable, the people addressed their petitions and complaints to the emperor, but without success.

Thus countenanced, the tyrants gave a loose to their disposition. One of them, Grisler, who was governor of Underwald, set his hat upon a pole at Altorff, and in the wantonness of power demanded that the same respect should be paid to it as to himself. The histories of Swisserland relate, that a man named William Tell refused to submit to this indignity. Grisler gave orders that he should be brought before him; when, telling him that he had heard he was an excellent marksman, he commanded him to shoot an arrow at an apple which he caused to be placed upon the head of Tell's son, declaring at the same time that if he failed to hit it he should be hanged. Tell, though with a trembling hand, struck off the apple without touching his son, and hereby saved his life; but Grisler perceiving that the marksman, though he was ordered to have but one arrow, still retained one in his belt, demanded the reason; on which the intrepid archer declared, that had he been so unfortunate as to have killed his son, the other

arrow he meant to have directed at the tyrant's heart.—Grisler, who had promised to give him his life on his acknowledging the truth, now ordered him to be bound, and carried prisoner for life to a place on the lake of Lucern; but Tell happily escaped out of the boat in crossing the lake, retired into the mountains, where he waited for an opportunity of destroying the tyrant, and at length shot him as he was passing along the road.

The people now universally expressed their abhorrence of the tyrants, and the inhabitants of Uri, Schwitz and Underwald, who had from time immemorial possessed the right of being governed by their own magistrates, with other important privileges, united in order to defend themselves to the last extremity. For this purpose they chose three commanders, gentlemen of approved courage and abilities; these were Wernber Stauffach, Walter Furst, and Arnold Melchthal, who secretly agreed to surprise and demolish the castles in which the imperial governors resided.

> These with the gen'rous rustics sate
> On Uri's rock in close divan,
> And wing'd that arrow sure as fate
> Which ascertained the sacred rights of man.

This resolution being effected, these three places joined again in a league for ten years, which gave birth to the Helvetic confederacy. The emperor Albert thinking this a proper time for totally reducing these places by force of arms, hastened to Baden to begin the preparation; but being on his return murdered by John of Hapsburg, the design was dropped till the house of Austria invented another pretence for falling on the United Cantons. These and other parts of Swisserland adhering to the emperor Lewis of Bavaria, Frederick of Austria, his competitor, was so incensed, that he put the inhabitants of Schwitz under the ban of the empire, because during their contest with the abbey of Einsidlen they had made some of the monks prisoners: they were accordingly excommunicated by the bishop of Constance. Soon after, Leopold duke of Austria, in 1315,

attacked the Confederates with an army of twenty thousand men; but was defeated at Morgarten in the canton of Schwitz, notwithstanding the whole Swiss army did not amount to more than 1300 men. Upon this event, on the eighth of December in the same year, they entered into a perpetual alliance. As this signal victory was gained in the canton of Schwitz, and the men of that district particularly signalized themselves in the action, the other two cantons were from that time joined to it by the common name of Switzers; which name has been since extended to all the other cantons and their allies, on their being received into the union. The firmness and intrepidity with which the Switzers conducted themselves in the recovery of their liberties, were equalled by nothing but the moderation with which they behaved to their tyrannical rulers, whom they conducted out of their territories, and contented themselves with exacting an oath from them that they would never more set foot in the country.

In 1332 Lucern acceded to this alliance; in 1351 they were joined by Zurich and Glaris; and in 1352 their number was increased, by their being joined by Zug and Bern. For the space of 125 years this confederacy was composed only of these eight cantons; but in 1481 Freyburg and Soluthurn, and in 1501 Basil and Schaffhausen were admitted into the confederacy; and in 1513 Appenzel also acceded to it.

The federal union, however, extends no farther than is necessary for their mutual defence, and accommodating differences that may arise between two or more towns or cantons, and in all other affairs they are left to their liberty, particularly with respect to concluding alliances with foreign powers, their granting auxiliaries, receiving subsidies, permitting a passage to foreign troops, and also in their transactions among each other; as the sending of envoys to foreign states, adjusting the value of their coins, or calling them in, and other matters of public concern; though, both in their foreign and domestic affairs, great pains are taken to produce an unanimity of opinion, in order to add the geater weight to

their resolutions. Besides, every town and canton is, in itself, an independent state, enjoys the privilege of modelling its own form of government, and of making laws, without any obstruction from the other members of the confederacy.

Thus the whole Helvetic confederacy properly consists of thirteen distinct republics, or free states, united by oath for their mutual security and defence. It has now for some centuries supported itself in an absolute freedom and independency; made wars, concluded treaties, received and sent envoys from and to the several European powers; entered into alliances with them; given what form they thought proper to their constitution; enacted laws and ordinances, both in temporal and spiritual affairs; and exercised all the variousprerogatives of sovereignty.

By the peace of Westphalia in 1648, the Helvetic confederacy was acknowledged to be a free state, even by the emperor and empire; at which time they were so addressed by the French king, the king of Great Britain, the king of Sweden, the king of Prussia, and the Pope.

The form of government in the states of the Helvetic republic is in some aristocratical, and in others democratical. Two of the former have supreme heads, who are princes of the empire; as the bishops of Basil, and abbot of St. Gall. The aristocratical governments are the cantons of Zurich, Basil, and Schaffhausen, with some incorporated places, as the towns of St. Gall, Muhlhausen, and Biel, which are governed by six burgomasters; the cantons of Bern, Lucern, Freyburg, and Solothurn, or Soleure, over which are appointed justiciaries; and Neuenburg and Geneva, where the supreme power is lodged in bailiffs. The democratical form of government prevails in the six cantons of Uri, Schwitz, Underwald, Zug, Glaris, and Appenzel, which are under the direction of landammen, and also some variation in the eight acceding places, as the Grisons and the Valais; but in all of them every male from sixteen years of age has a vote. Whether the govern-

ment be aristocratical, democratical or mixed, absolute or limited, a general spirit of liberty pervades and actuates the several constitutions.

The revenues of the states are the usual imports, tythes, annual incomes, payments annexed to the sovereignty, and their subsidies.

A general diet of the cantons usually meets once a year, and continues in common not above a month.—Their business is to consider of the methods most proper to be taken for the common good and safety of the whole Helvetic body. Besides which annual diet, each canton has the liberty of summoning an extraordinary one; or a foreign minister may convoke one. The diet is composed of two deputies from each canton, who rank according to the order of their canton. The abbots of St. Gall and Bienne send their deputies to it as allies. One of the deputies from Zurich always presides on these occasions.

Beside these general diets, there are two particular ones: the one held at Arrow, in which are settled the concerns of all the Protestant cantons; the other at Lucern, in which the Roman catholic cantons transact the affairs of their body. If the thirteen cantons send ambassadors to a foreign court, they do not delegate one man to represent them all, but each canton appoints its own ambassador, to shew its distinct and independent state.

Mr. Stanyan, who seems to have studied the government of the Swiss, as well as the genius of the people, with great impartiality and discernment, passes the severest censure upon their corrupt administration of justice. The code of Charles V. which is known by the name of "the Caroline code," forms in each of the republics the principal basis of the penal laws.—Mr. Coxe says much too great a latitude is allowed to the judges. The regulations respecting their prisons the same traveller much commends. Criminals are there confined in wholesome and separate wards, and are brought to trial soon after their commitment. The trial by torture is not yet abolished. Drunkenness, stupidi-

ty, and mercenary valour, which are the defects commonly charged upon them, he takes great pains to clear them of. Their women, he asserts, want no charms either in their persons or conversation; especially in the three most polished cantons of Berne, Freyburg, and Soleure or Solothurn.

At an early period of the French revolution, the cries of liberty and equality were echoed, with a martial voice, in the sequestered vales and mountains of Swisserland; where peace, content, and industry, had resided for some ages.

In 1797, the French directory made certain menacing demands on the Swiss cantons. The senate sent an embassy to Paris, with an offer to accommodate all existing disputes in any manner "not inconsistent with the independence of a free people:" but the deputies were ordered to return; and it was intimated, as the price of peace, "that the ancient magistrates were to be dismissed, and a new constitution, founded on democratical principles, established." On hearing this degrading proposition, the patrician families determined upon resistance. An army of twenty-five thousand men was intrusted to baron d'Erlach, who was too eager to decide the fate of his country in a pitched battle. In the mean time the management of the war was confided by the directory to general Brune: he immediately entered the territories of Berne, and published a flattering proclamation, which concluded with these words: "Be free—France invites, nature commands it; and to employ this precious advantage, you have only to express the wish!"

As the troops of Berne retired, and those of France advanced towards the capital of the cantons, mutiny and disaffection became prevalent in the former, while terror and dismay preceded the march of the latter. At length, the magistrates, perceiving that the levy of the peasantry, instead of meliorating, rendered their own situation more desperate, determined on abdicating employments which they had no prospect of maintaining; and the popular party, headed by Tiller and Bay,

having obtained the superiority in the council, a provisional regency was nominated, and intelligence of this sudden revolution conveyed to the French general.

A treaty was now formed, but being dictated partly from policy and partly from necessity, (as the French met with a defeat from the confederates) it was neither agreeable to the French nor to the Helvetic directory; and, unfortunately, a pretext was speedily afforded for the renewal of hostilities, as Underwalden, exhibiting a fastidious perseverance, obstinately refused to accede to any conditions whatever. On this the French marched a large army into that canton, and, after a terrible battle of two days duration, during which clubs and spears were in vain opposed to muskets and bayonets, and fragments of rock to a regular artillery, the hardy mountaineers were overcome, the town of Standtz taken by assault, the houses in its beautiful valley destroyed by fire, and the inhabitants nearly exterminated by a furious and implacable soldiery. After this all the Swiss submitted to the new constitution.

Thus, after enjoying the sweets of independence since the beginning of the fourteenth century, when the fortunate issue of a contest with Albert of Austria laid the foundation of their liberties, and also produced, perhaps, the revolutions of England, America, and France, the federate republics of Swisserland were overcome by a foreign enemy, and compelled to change the form of their government. The pretext for their ruin originated in the notorious injustice of the canton of Berne to the small states subjected to its controul: and this intolerable yoke, instead of being lightened, was increased during a war which had effected so many memorable changes.

The allied powers, Austria and Russia, sent a numerous army to dispossess the French of their influence in Swisserland, under the command of two brave and experienced generals, the archduke Charles and prince Sowarroff: But, after a number of bloody battles, the French under generals Massena and Lecourbe succeeded in expelling the allied forces out of Swisserland.

Of one hundred thousand men who had left Russia with Sowarroff, or joined him afterwards, scarcely forty thousand retreated with him to the Lech. After thus losing nearly sixty thousand of his best warriors (with whom he had formerly *massacred* and conquered the unfortunate Polanders) the veteran marshal, for the first time in his life, was forced to retreat before the French republicans; overwhelmed with grief, he retired to his native country, where, being exposed at the same time to the frowns of fortune and the indignation of his capricious master, he shortly perished, either by poison or despair!

The treaties of Lunenville and Amiens, which gave the semblance of peace to Europe, at the expence of the gigantic acquisitions of France, and the establishment of her military chief, held out to the Helvetic confederacy a guarantee of her ancient freedom and independence. Such however is the present situation of the European powers, that the faith of treaties is no longer a pledge of security to the weaker states, against the ambition and power of the strong; when the hour of action arrives, plausible pretences are never wanting to furnish a prologue to the tragedy of oppression and injustice. Unhappy Swisserland has lately furnished a melancholy proof of this observation.

Internal disputes have been alledged as the cause of the late *interference* of the French government in the affairs of Swisserland. This interference of France, among some other causes, has paved the way to the present European war. Let us be grateful to our beneficent Creator, for placing the wide *Atlantic* betwixt us and the contending powers of Europe.

Religion.] The two prevailing religions are the Calvinistical and Popish; the former is professed by four cantons, five annexed places, and three governments: the latter is established in seven cantons, three incorporated districts, twelve governments, and the like number of protected places. In two cantons among the Grisons, five governments, and two protected places, both religions are on an equal footing.

Each town, place, and state, has its own particular constitution, for the management of its churches, schools, and other ecclesiastical affairs.—*Payne.*

CHAPTER XIX.

OTTOMAN OR TURKISH EMPIRE.

The Turks are of Tartarian or Scythian extraction; and this appellation was first given them in the middle ages as a proper name; it being a general title of honor to all the nations comprehended under the two principal branches of Tartar and Mongol, who therefore never use it as a proper name of any particular Scythian or Tartarian nation. The word tur, as an adjective, signifies sublime and pre-eminent; and, as a substantive, a governor. The Scythian or Tartarian nation, to which the name of Turks have been peculiarly given, dwelt betwixt the Black and Caspian Seas, and became first known in the seventh century, when Heraclitus, emperor of the east, took them into his service; in which they so distinguished themselves by their fidelity and bravery in the conquest of Persia, that the Arabian and Saracen caliphs had not only select bodies of them for guards, but their armies were composed of them. Thus gradually getting the power into their hands, they set up and dethroned caliphs at pleasure. By this strict union of the Turks with the Saracens or Arabs, the former were brought to embrace the Mahometan religion, so that they are now become intermixed, and have jointly enlarged their conquests; but as the Turks became superior to the Saracens, they subdued them.

Prince Cantemir gives the following account of the origin of the Ottoman empire.

Genghiskan, at the head of his horse, issued out of Great Tartary, and made himself master of a vast tract of land near the Caspian Sea, and even of all Persia, and Asia Minor. Incited by his example and success,

Sehah Solyman, prince of the town of Nera, on the Caspian Sea, in the year 1214, passed Mount Caucasus with fifty thousand men, and penetrated as far as the borders of Syria; and though his career was stopped there by the Genghiskan Tartars, yet in the year 1219 he penetrated a second time into Asia Minor, as far as the Euphrates. Othman, his grandson, made himself master of several countries and places in Lesser Asia, belonging to the Grecian empire: and having, in the year 1300, at the city of Carachifer, assumed the title of Emperor of the Othmans, called his people after his own name. This prince, among many other towns, took, in the year 1326, Prusa, in Brythnia, now called Bursa, which Orchan, his son and successor, made the seat of his empire. Orchan sent Solyman and Amurath, his two sons, on an expedition into Europe; the former of whom reduced the city of Gallipolis, and the latter took Tyrilos. Amurath succeeded his father in the government in 1360, took Ancrya, Adrianople, and Philippopolis; and, in 1362 over-ran Servia, and invaded Macedonia and Albania. Bajazet, his son and successor, was very successful both in Europe and Asia, defeating the Christians near Nicopolis; but, in 1401, he was routed and taken prisoner by Tamerlane. His sons disagreed; but Mahomet I. enjoyed the sovereignty, and his son Amurath II. distinguished himself by several important enterprizes, and particularly in the year 1444 gained a signal victory over the Hungarians near Varna. Mahomet II. the greatest of all the emperors, in 1453, made himself master of Constantinople, and reduced the whole Grecian empire under his dominion, subduing twelve kingdoms and two hundred towns. After this, Bajazet II. and Selim I. enlarged the Turkish empire in Europe, Asia, and Africa; and Solyman I. became not less famous for his victory over the Hungarians than for his body of laws.

The succeeding emperors were less successful; for though Mahomet IV. subdued Candia, and laid siege to Vienna, he met with ill success in Hungary; and in the reigns of Solyman II. Achmet II. and Mustapha,

the Hungarians and Venetians were so successful against the Turks, that Mustapha II. in 1699, was glad to conclude the peace of Carlowitz. Mahomet III. in 1718, agreed to the peace of Passarowitz; but Achmet V. by the peace of Belgrade, in 1739, re-annexed Servia, a part of Walachia, and Choczin, to the empire.

GOVERNMENT.—The titles of the emperor, according to the customs of the East, are very prolix and magnificent, as will appear from the following specimen. We, the servant and lord of the most honoured and blessed cities, the venerable houses, and sacred places, before which all nations bow; of Mecca, which God delights to honour; of the splendid Medina, and the holy city of Jerusalem; of the imperial and desirable cities of Constantinople, Adrianople, and Bursa, emperor; also of Babylon, Damascus, of the fragrant Paradise and the incomparable Egypt; of all Arabia, Aleppo, Antioch, and many other highly and celebrated places, cities, and faithful vassals, emperors; emperor of emperors, the most gracious and all-powerful sultan, &c.

The Turkish arms are a crescent.

In the succession to the empire no regard is paid to age or birthright, the Turks deeming it sufficient, if, in their elections, they keep to the Othman family: but women are excluded from the throne. Though the government is purely monarchical and despotic, yet if the emperor is inattentive to gratify the humours of the people, and especially of the mutinous janizaries, he is not only in danger of being deposed, but also of being murdered.

The emperor's divan, or council of state, meets twice a-week in the emperor's palace, that is, on Sundays and Thursdays. The grand vizier, who sits as president, has on his right hand the cadinlaskier of Romelia, and on his left that of Natolia. The mufti also assists when expressly summoned. All the other viziers have likewise a seat here, and next to them stand on one side the testerdar, or high treasurer, the reis-effendi, or secretary of state, and other commissioners of the exchequer; but the military officers, as the aga of the ja-

nizaries, the aga of the spahis, the aga of the siluds, &c. sit within the divan. These several members wear a particular habit. The sultan does not enter the room, but hears what passes from an adjoining chamber, which looks into the divan.

When he convenes a general council, to which all the great persons of the empire are summoned, as the clergy, the military, and other officers, and even the old and most experienced soldiers, such a divan is called ajak divani, the whole assembly standing.

The highest office, next to the sultan, is the vizier azem, or grand vizier, who has the whole care of the empire, and is not only intrusted with the management of the revenue, with foreign affairs, and the administration of justice in civil and criminal concerns, but also with the conduct of wars, and the command of armies. When the sultan nominates this great officer, he puts into his hand the seal of the empire, upon which is engraven his name. This is the badge of his office, and he always carries it in his bosom. With this seal he dispatches all his orders, without consulting any one. His power is unlimited, except with respect to the troops, which he cannot punish without the consent of the commanders. All affairs are decided by his judgment; and he disposes of all the posts in the empire, except those of judicature.

The grand vizier lives in the utmost splendour; he has above two thousand officers and domestics in his palace, and when he appears in public has his turban adorned with two plumes of feathers, enriched with diamonds and precious stones; the harness of his horse is usually set with rubies and turquoises, and his housing richly embroidered with gold and pearls. His guard is composed of about four hundred Bosnians, or Albanians, some of whom attend him on foot when he goes to the divan; but when he marches into the field, they are all well mounted, and carry a lance, a sword, a hatchet, and a brace of pistols. He is preceded by three horse-tails, on the top of which is a gold ball. This is the

military ensign of the Ottomans; for one of their generals being at a loss how to rally his troops, who had lost all their standards, cut off a horse's tail, and erecting it on the point of a lance, the soldiers flocked to this new ensign, renewed their attack, and became victorious.

When the sultan honors the grand vizier with the command of an army, he takes out one of the plumes of his own turban, and delivers it to him to place in his own. Upon his receiving this mark of distinction, the soldiers acknowledge him for their general. The grand vizier's income, without being guilty of any injustice, amounts to about six hundred thousand dollars a year, (135,000*l.* sterling,) exclusive of presents and other perquisites. But notwithstanding the greatness of his revenue, and the splendor in which he lives, he is exposed to continual danger; it being the usual policy to screen themselves from the clamors of the people, by throwing the whole blame of any instance of mal-administration on this officer, and giving him up to the public resentment.

Next to the grand vizier are six others, styled "vizier of the bench or council," and "bashas of three horse-tails;" because, when they march, three horse-tails are carried before them, while only one is carried before the ordinary bashas. These viziers ought to be men distinguished by their wisdom, and their knowledge of the laws. They assist at the divan, but never deliver their opinion upon the affairs which are discussed there, unless required by the grand vizier. These have each two thousand crowns a year, and the grand vizier often refers matters of small consequence to them, as well as to the ordinary judges. Cady is a word used for all judges of a province or particular place.

A beglerbeg is a viceroy, with several provinces under his command, the name itself signifying a prince of princes. The three principal are the beglerbeg of Romelia, who resides at Sophia; the beglerbeg of Natolia, the seat of whose government is at Cutabia; and the beglerbeg of Damascus, who keeps his court in that

city. Under these are the bashas or governors, whose posts are very considerable, but precarious; and subordinate to these are the sangiacs, who may be termed deputy-governors. These are all military officers.

The reis-effendi, also called the reis-kital, is lord chancellor and secretary of state. His name signifies chief of the writers. He attends on the vizier to pass orders, decrees, patents, and commissions, into all parts of the empire, which are daily dispatched in incredible numbers, and therefore he employs a multitude of clerks in his office.

The public treasury is under the management of the testerdar, or high treasurer. The money of this treasury, called the public money of the mussulmans, is not to be touched even by the emperor but in the greatest exigency, much less for private occasions. The sultan's private treasury, which he disposes of according to his own pleasure, is under the care of the hasnadar baschi, who is the next person in rank to the kislar in the seraglio. Prince Cantemir says, that, in his time, twenty-seven thousand purses, amounting to thirteen millions and a half of rix-dollars, were annually returned to both treasuries. The confiscations of the estates and effects of the bashas, and other officers, together with the money arising from the escheats of Turks dying without male issue, make also a very considerable article.

The janizaries are the flower of the Turkish forces; they are all infantry, and were first formed of captive Christians, by the emperor Amurath I. about the year 1360. Their number generally amounts to forty thousand, divided into a hundred and sixty-two companies, or chambers, called odas, in which they live together at Constantinople, as in a convent. The janizaries are of a superior rank to all other soldiers; and are also more arrogant and factious, whence it is that by them the public tranquility is chiefly disturbed. "The government," says the lady Wortley Montague, "is entirely in the hands of the army. The grand seignior, with all his absolute power, is as much a slave as any of his sub-

jects, and trembles at a janizary's frown. Here is, indeed, a much greater appearance of subjection than amongst us: a minister of state is not spoken to but upon the knee; should a reflection on his conduct be dropped in a coffee-house (for they have their spies every where) the house would be razed to the ground, and perhaps the whole company put to the torture. Yet, when a minister here displeases the people, in three hours time he is dragged even from his master's arms. They cut off his hands, head, and feet, and throw them before the palace gate, with all the respect in the world; while the sultan, to whom they all profess an unlimited adoration, sits trembling in his apartment, and dares neither defend nor revenge his favorite."

The Rise, Progress and Establishment of Mahometanism.

A subject so curious and important as the religion established by Mahomet, which has been professed for more than eleven centuries by many millions of the human race, and which at present prevails from the Ganges to Morocco, exclusive of a vast number of very populous islands, and every country where the tribes of Malays settle, in one direction, and from the southern extremity of Arabia, to the borders of Hungary, in another, deserves to be particularly enlarged upon.

Mahomet, or more properly Mohammed, the founder of this singular and spreading faith, was born in the year 569 of the Christian era; he sprung from the tribe of Koraish, and the family of Hashem; his grandfather, uncles, and lineal ancestors were princes; his family possessed by hereditary right the custody of the Caaba at Mecca, which was a place of worship resorted to by the Arabians long before the time of Mahomet. Notwithstanding the respectability of his descent, being left an orphan when very young, and being in low circumstances, he was recommended to Khadijah, a noble and rich widow, for her factor, he having been bred to merchandise, in which capacity he acquitted himself so well,

that he gained the affections of his mistress, and by marrying her, became as rich a merchant as any in Mecca: his kindness, attachment, and strict fidelity to his wife, who was much older than himself, during more than twenty years, bespeak a susceptible heart, and a generous and noble nature. His natural strength of mind, and intrepidity of spirit, prompted him to form great designs when his fortunes improved, although it is said that he was so illiterate as not to be capable of reading or writing. This want of learning was so far from proving an impediment to him in effecting his designs, that it very strongly promoted them; for the crafty Arab, who must unquestionably have merely affected this gross ignorance, insisted that the writings which he produced as revelations from God, were cleared of all imputation of being forgeries, for such elegance of style and excellence of doctrine could not originate from a man incapable alike of writing or reading; for this reason his followers, instead of being ashamed of their master's ignorance, glory in it, as an evident proof of his divine mission, and scruple not to call him, as he is called in the Koran itself, "the illiterate prophet." Sir William Jones relates a traditional story concerning the celebrated poet Lebid, who was a contemporary with Mahomet, and an avowed enemy to his new doctrine at its first promulgation; who, to express his opposition to it, hung a poem on the gate of the temple, as was then customary to be done, which poem contained a strong implied contempt of the new religion; this piece appeared so sublime that none of the poets chose to attempt an answer to it, till Mahomet, who was likewise a poet, having composed a chapter of the Koran, placed the exordium of it by the side of Lebid's poem, who no sooner read it, than he declared it to be something divine, confessed his own inferiority, tore his verses from the gate, embraced the religion he had stigmatized, and became afterwards essentially serviceable in replying to the satires of Amralkeis, who was unwearied in his attacks upon the doctrine of Mohammed. *Essay on the Poetry of the Eastern Nations*, p. 137.

The state of the world at that time was highly favourable to the introduction of a new religion: it had been the will of heaven to permit the purity and simplicity of the doctrines of Christ to be contaminated and perverted by the crafty wiles of priestcraft, which caused the grossest impositions to be practised upon an ignorant laity; pomp, splendour, and unintelligible worship, were substituted for the devotion of the heart, whilst the prayers offered up to imaginary and fictitious saints had effaced all just notions of the attributes of the Deity. Mohammed had made two journies into Syria, where he had informed himself of the principles of Judaism, and the jargon which bore the name of Christianity; it is probable that his mind was naturally prone to religious enthusiasm, and that he was a devotee before he became an impostor. His first design seems to have extended no farther than to bring the wild, intractable, and ardent Arabs to acknowledge one God and one King, and it is probable that for a considerable time his ambition extended no farther than to become the spiritual and temporal sovereign of Arabia. He began his eventful project by accusing both Jews and Christians with corrupting the revelations which had been made to them from heaven, and maintained that both Moses and Jesus Christ had prophetically foretold the coming of a prophet from God which was accomplished in himself, the last and greatest of the prophets; thus initiated, he proceeded to deliver detached sentences, as he pretended to receive them from the Almighty, by the hand of the angel Gabriel. These pretensions to a divine mission drew on him a requisition from the inhabitants of Mecca that he would convince them by working a miracle: but he replied, "God refuses those signs and wonders that would depreciate the merit of faith, and aggravate the guilt of infidelity." The unity of God was the grand and leading article in the creed he taught, to which was closely joined his own divine mission: *Allah il allah, Muhamed rescul Allah*, is their preface to every act of devotion, and the sentence continually in their mouths:

which is, "there is but one God, and Mohammed is his prophet."

The Arabian tribes, who occupied the country from Mecca to the Euphrates, were at that time known by the name of Saracens; their religion was chiefly gross idolatry, Sabianism having spread almost over the whole nation, though there were likewise great numbers of Christians, Jews, and Magians interspersed in those parts. The essence of that worship principally consisted in adoring the planets and fixed stars; angels and images they honoured as inferior deities, whose intercessions with the Almighty in their favour they implored: they believed in one God, in the future punishment of the wicked, for a long series of years, though not for ever; and constantly prayed three times a day; namely, at sun-rise, at its declination, and at sun-set: they fasted three times a year; during 30 days, 9 days, and 7 days: they offered many sacrifices, but ate no part of them, the whole being burnt: they likewise turned their faces, when praying, to a particular part of the horison: they performed pilgrimages to the city of Harran, in Mesopotamia, and had a great respect for the temple of Mecca and the pyramids of Egypt, imagining the latter to be the sepulchres of Seth, also of Enos and Sabi, his two sons, whom they considered as the founders of their religion. Beside the book of Psalms, they had other books which they esteemed equally sacred, particularly one, in the Chaldee tongue, which they called "the book of Seth." They have been called "Christians of St. John the Baptist," whose disciples also they pretend to be, using a kind of baptism, which is the greatest mark they bear of christianity: circumcision was practised by the Arabs, although Sale is silent on that practice, when describing the religion of the Sabians; they likewise abstained from swine's flesh. So that in this sect we may trace the essential articles of the creed of the Mussulmen.

Mahomet was in the 40th year of his age when he assumed the character of a prophet; he had been accustomed for several years, during the month of Ramadan,

to withdraw from the world, and secrete himself in a cave three miles distant from Mecca; "conversation," says Mr. Gibbon, "enriches the understanding, but solitude is the school of genius." During the first three years, he made only fourteen proselytes, among which were his wife Khadijah; his servant, or rather slave, Zeid Ali, who afterwards married the prophet's favourite daughter Fatima, and was surnamed "the lion of God:" Abubekar, a man distinguished for his merit and his wealth; the rest consisted of respectable citizens of Mecca. The Koreishites, although the tribe from which he sprung, were the most violent opposers of the new religion. In the 10th year of his prophetic office his wife died, and the next year, his enemies having formed a design to cut him off, and he being seasonably apprized, fled by night to Medina, on the 16th of July, 622, from which event the Hegira commenced; he was accompanied only by two or three followers, but he made a public entry into that city, and soon gained many proselytes, on which he assumed the regal and sacerdotal characters. As he increased in power, that moderation and humility which had before distinguished his conduct, were gradually erased, and he became fierce and sanguinary: he began to avow a design of propagating his religion by the sword, to destroy the monuments of idolatry, and, without regarding the sanctity of days or months, to pursue the unbelieving nations of the earth.

The Koran inculcates, in the most absolute sense, the tenets of faith and predestination; the first companions of Mahomet advanced to battle with a fearless confidence, their leader having fully possessed their minds with the assurance that paradise awaited those who died fighting for the cause of their prophet, the gratifications of which were held out to be such as best suited the amorous complexions of the Arabians: Houries of black-eyed girls resplendent in beauty, blooming youth and virgin purity; every moment of pleasure was there to be prolonged to a thousand years, and the powers of the man were to be increased an hundred fold to render him ca-

pable of such felicity: to those who survived, rich spoils and the possession of their female captives were to crown their conquests. Mahomet was present at nine battles or sieges, and fifty enterprizes of war were atchieved in ten years by himself or his lieutenants. Seven years after his flight from Mecca he returned to that city, where he was publicly recognized as a prince and prophet: the idolatrous worship of the Caaba was immediately abolished, and succeeded by the simplicity of the Mahometan establishment. This Arab lawgiver retained both his mental and bodily powers unimpaired till he reached his sixtieth year, then his health began to decline, and he himself suspected that a slow poison had been administered to him by a Jewess, under the effects of which he languished; but his death was caused by a fever, in the 63d year of his age, the 632d of the Christian era, and 10th of the Hegira. There are some particulars told respecting Mahomet, which have gained general belief although void of all foundation; such is the story of the tame pigeon, which the people were taught to believe imparted religious truths to the ear of the prophet; the epileptic fits, which have been said to cause him to fall down as in a trance, he is not supposed to have been subject to; and the suspension of his iron coffin at Mecca is a most absurd falsehood, it being well known that he was buried at Medina in a stone coffin.

MAHOMETAN RELIGION.—The most amiable features in the religion which Mahomet established, are, profound adoration of one God, whose names, or rather titles, are amazingly diversified in the Koran; (these are collected, to the amount of nine hundred and ninety-nine, and serve as a manual of devotion;) the daily offering up of prayers to him, which consist of short ejaculations, stated fasts, and a constant distribution of a large portion of personal property to the relief of the indigent and distressed. Nor is the charity which is enjoined confined to alms giving, but comprehends, in its fullest extent, general humanity and acts of beneficence to all mussulmen. A general resurrection of the dead is another article of belief reiterated in the Koran.

Whatever superstitious practices adhere to it, cannot be imputed to priestcraft, for no religion that ever was promulgated to the world, the unadulterated religion of Jesus Christ excepted, so entirely excluded the influence of the priesthood; it may indeed be called emphatically, "the laical religion," since its founder had the address to obtain the most enthusiastic regard to his dogmas, without giving wealth or consequence to those who were appointed to illustrate and enforce them; indeed the Koran reproaches the Christians for taking their priests and monks for their lords beside God. The pilgrimage to Mecca, praying toward that place, and the ablutions which are enjoined on the most ordinary acts and occasions, together with the adoption of that religious sophism predestination, in its most extravagant extent, seem to comprehend the superstitious parts of this religion; but it has other characteristics which betray its spurious origin, and prove its destructive tendency.

To compensate for the rigid fastings which it enjoins, and the disuse of wine which it requires, a most licentious indulgence is allowed in the use of women; and though they may not, as has been imputed to them, deny to that sex a future state of existence, yet, as they consider women merely as instruments of gratification, all those amiable qualities which the sex is capable of displaying when its faculties are properly dilated, by a judicious and liberal course of education, are suppressed as soon as formed.

Another foul taint in this religion is, the abhorrence which it creates against all those who do not embrace the same doctrines, and the direct tendency of that faith to consign the human mind to a state of arrogant and incurable ignorance by considering the Koran as comprising every thing worthy of being known. The Arabs, from the genial influence of their climate, as well as from habits transmitted through so many generations as to be formed into innate principles, were libidinous beyond most of their species, and no individual among them felt that propensity stronger than their prophet; neither

policy nor inclination therefore prompted him to bring his principles under severe restraints with respect to women; he ought not, however, to be denied the praise which is due to having in some measure tempered the lustful fierceness of his countrymen, and he may be said to have effected some reformation, when he restrained his followers even to four wives, when he forbad incestuous alliances, entitled a repudiated wife to a dower from her husband, made adultery a capital offence, and rendered fornication punishable by law.

Beside the Koran, which is the written law to the Mahometans alike as to belief and practice of religion, and the administration of public justice, there is the Sunnah, or oral law, which was selected two hundred years after the death of Mahomet, from a vast number of precepts and injunctions which had been handed down from age to age, as bearing the stamp of his authority. In this work the rite of circumcision is enjoined, concerning which the Koran was silent, nor was it necessary to be there commanded, as the Arabians adhered to it before this establishment. By the express command of their founder, the Mahometans set apart Friday in each week for the especial worship of God.—They are ever assiduous to make converts to their faith, nor can they reject the most abject or profligate wretch, who declares his desire of becoming a true believer, even although they know him to be ignorant alike of their language and the principles of their religion.

We cannot quit the subject of this very remarkable religion without observing, that the Romanists, in explaining the book of Revelation, insist that the religion of Mahomet is pointed out by the predicted antichrist; and they have, with much apparent reason, explained that mystical number 666, which has been so variously unravelled, and is expressly said to be the number of a man, or the number of the name of a man, to apply to the name of Mahomet; which, when expressed in the Greek, in which language the Apocalypse was written, is MAOMETIΣ or MOAMETIΣ, as Euthymius and the Greek historians Zonares and Cedrenus write so. The

letters which compose this word, according to the Greek numeration, are thus:

Μ	40
Ο	70
Α	1
Μ	40
Ε	5
Τ	300
Ι	10
Σ	200
	666

which must be confessed to be a remarkable coincidence. Bellarmine, *Pastorini's (Bp. Walmesley's) History of the Christian Church*, p. 366.

Charity is enjoined in the strongest terms in the Koran; and the Turks are remarkable for acts of benevolence to the poor and distressed, and are even careful to prevent the unfortunate being reduced to necessities. They repair highways, erect cisterns of water for the convenience of travellers, build kanns or caravanseras for their reception; and some devout people, it is said, erect sheds by the way side, that the weary traveller may sit under the shade, and take his refreshment. In chap. iv. of the Koran, are the following injunctions: "Shew kindness to thy parents, to thy relations, to orphans, to the poor; to thy neighbour who is related to thee, and to thy neighbour who is a stranger; to thy familiar companion, to the traveller, and to the captive whom thy right hand has taken; for God loveth not the proud, the vain-glorious, the covetous, or those who bestow their wealth in order to be seen of men."

They name their children as soon as they are born; when the father, putting some grains of salt into its mouth, and lifting it on high, as dedicating it to God, cries out, "God grant, my son Solyman, that his holy name may be as savoury in thy mouth as this salt, and that he may preserve thee from being too much in love with the world." As to the infants who die young before

they are circumcised, they believe they are saved by the circumcision of their father.

Their children are not circumcised, like those of the Jews, at eight days old, but at eleven or twelve, and sometimes at fourteen or fifteen years of age, when they are able to make a profession of their faith. On the day fixed for the ceremony, the boy is set on horseback, and conducted, with music, about the town; and on his return, is circumcised in his father's house.

The imaum or priest makes a short exhortation, and causes him to make his profession of faith, by saying, "There is no God but God, and Mahomet is his prophet;" then orders the surgeon to place him upon a sopha, and perform the operation. Two servants hold a cloth spread out before the child's face, and the surgeon having drawn the fore-skin as low as he can without prejudice, holds it with his pincers, while he cuts it with a razor; and shewing it to the assistants, cries out, "God is great." The child cries out with pain, but every one comes to congratulate him on his being admitted into the rank of mussulmen, or believers; and on this occasion a feast is made for all the relations and friends, who are very merry, and spend their time in dancing and singing; and the next day those who are invited make presents to the child. When a renegado Christian is circumcised, two basons are usually carried after him, to gather the alms which the spectators freely give. Those who are uncircumcised, whether Turkish children or Christians, are not allowed to be present at their public prayers; and if they are taken in their mosques, they are liable to be impaled or burnt.

The fast of Ramadan is observed by the Turks exactly in the same manner as by the Persians. The feast of Bairam begins with the next new moon after that fast, and is published by firing of guns, bonfires, and other rejoicings. At this feast the houses and shops are adorned with their finest hangings, tapestries, and sophas. In the streets are swings ornamented with festoons, in which the people sit, and are tossed in the air, while they are at the same time entertained with vocal

and instrumental music performed by persons hired by the masters of the swings. They have also fire-works; and, during the three days of this festival, many women, who are in a manner confined the rest of the year, have liberty to walk abroad. At this time they forgive their enemies, and become reconciled to them; for they think they have made a bad Bairam, if they harbour the least malice in their hearts against any person whatsoever.

They regularly pray three times a day, and are obliged to wash before their prayers, as well as before they presume to touch the Koran. As they make great use of their fingers in eating, they are required to wash after every meal, and the more cleanly among them do it before meals. Every time they cohabit with their women, they must go to the bagnio before they presume to pray; thus they are never long together out of water.

By the Mahometan law a man may divorce his wife twice, and if he afterwards repents, he may lawfully take her again; but Mahomet to prevent his followers from divorcing their wives upon every slight occasion, or merely from an inconstant humour, ordained, that if any man divorces his wife a third time, it is not lawful for him to take her again, till she has been married and bedded by another, and divorced from that husband. The Koran allows no man to have more than four wives and concubines, but the prophet and his successors are laid under no restriction.

Church government, by the institutions of Mahomet, appears to have centered in the Mufti, and the order of the Moulahs, from which the Mufti must be chosen. The Moulahs have been looked upon as ecclesiastics, and the Mufti as their head: but the Turks consider the first rather as expounders of the law, and the latter as the great law officer. Those who really act as divines are the Imaums, or parish priests, who officiate in, and are set aside for the service of the mosques. No church revenues are appropriated to the particular use of the Moulahs; the Imaums are the ecclesiastics in immediate pay. Their Scheiks are the chiefs of their Dervises, (Dervishes) or Monks, and form religious communities,

or orders, established on solemn vows; they consecrate themselves merely to religious offices, domestic devotion, and public prayer and preaching: there are four of these orders, the Bektoshi, Mevelevi, Kadri, and Seyah, who are very numerous throughout the empire. The monks of the first of these orders are permitted to marry, but are obliged to travel through the empire. The Mevelevi, in their acts of devotion, turn round with such velocity for two or three hours incessantly, that not even a trace of their countenance is perceivable by a spectator. They are passionately fond of music, particularly a flute formed of an Indian reed: they live in their monastery; profess poverty and humility; entertain kindly all strangers, of whatever religion, who visit them; and receive alms. They sometimes even offer to wash the feet of a mussulman. The Kadri express their devotion by lacerating their bodies; they walk the streets almost naked with distracted and wild looks; they hold their hands joined together, as if in the act of prayer, except when they perform their religious dances, which they continue many hours, and sometimes the whole day, repeating incessantly, Hu! hu! hu! hu! one of their names of the deity; until at last, as if they were in a violent rage or phrensy, they fall to the ground, foaming at the mouth, and every part of the body bathed in sweat.—The Seyahs are, like the Indian Fakiers, mere vagabonds. *Sir James Porter's Observations on the Turks*, p. 40, &c.

The Turks appropriate to themselves the name of Moslemim, which has been corrupted into Mussulman, signifying persons professing the doctrine of Mahomet. They also term themselves Sunnites, or observers of the oral traditions of Mahomet and his three successors; and likewise call themselves True Believers, in opposition to the Persians and others, the adherents of Ali, whom they call a wicked and abominable sect. Their rule of faith and practice is the Koran. Some externals of their religion, beside the prescribed ablutions, are prayers, which are to be said five times every twenty-four hours, with the face turned towards Mecca; alms

which are both enjoined and voluntary; the former consists of paying two and an half per cent. to charitable uses out of their whole income. Their feasts have been already spoken of: and every Mahometan must, at least, once in his life-time, go in pilgrimage, either personally or by proxy, to the Caaba, or house of God at Mecca.

Drinking wine is evidently prohibited in the Koran, yet the Turks make use of it occasionally without any scruple; but generally substitute sherbet in its stead, a liquor made of honey, spices, and the juice of fruits.—Other things interdicted are games of chance, prophesying with arrows, and certain foods, as blood, pork, or the flesh of any beast that has died of sickness, or been killed by a wild beast, or by a fall or a stroke. Likewise the worshipping of idols, usury, and some superstitious and Pagan practices.

The chief officer is the mufti, which name signifies an expounder of the law: and his office is of such dignity, that when he comes to court, the emperor himself rises from his seat, and advances seven steps to meet him.—He alone has the honor of kissing the sultan's left shoulder; while the grand vizier, with a most profound inclination of the body, kisses only the edge of the emperor's vest, who advances no more than three steps to meet him. The law requires, that the mufti should be consulted on all emergencies, particularly in those relating to peace or war; but the peculiar regard shown to him is little more than mere form; for were he either to give a disagreeable interpretation of the law, or while in council to presume to traverse the emperor's designs, he would be instantly deposed, and his place supplied by one of a more compliant disposition. On conviction of treason, or any other capital crime, he is put into a mortar, kept for that purpose in one of the seven towers in Constantinople, and pounded to death; but such an act of cruelty has not been committed since the reign of Amurath IV. towards the beginning of the last century.

A revolution took place at Constantinople, on the 24th of May, 1807. The discontents occasioned among

the people by the scarcity of provisions, and among the janizaries by the European exercise and discipline, furnished the enemies of the government with an occasion to excite an insurrection, which cost the unhappy Selim, the sultan, his throne and liberty.* On the 24th of May, the mufti, at the head of the malcontents, repaired with three hundred janizaries to the seraglio, and read to him a list of his pretended offences, recited passages from the koran, which declared him, on account of those offences, unworthy of the throne, and ordered him to sign a renunciation of it. Selim, seeing no means of resistance, signed the deed of renunciation, and begged his life. The mufti promised to intercede for him. His person was then secured, and fourteen of his principal ministers were put to death. Couriers were sent to the camp and the Dardenelles, to arrest and strangle the grand vizier and the captain pacha. On the 25th of May a proclamation was published in Constantinople, to announce to the people that the sultan had been dethroned, and to make known his offences, and the passages of the Koran which condemned those offences. The people were invited to remain tranquil, and mind their affairs. On the 26th, Mustapha, the son of Achmet, was proclaimed grand seignior. During the whole of this revolution, but few disorders were committed. The mass of the people took no part at all; so that we attribute this catastrophe to some chief of parties yet unknown to the janizaries. All foreigners had been ordered to be respected. We are assured that the grand vizier made no resistance to the order sent him, and was strangled. Of the captain pacha we know nothing.

The grand vizier had gained some successes before he died; he passed the Danube at Ismail, and forced general Michelson to retire from Wallachia to Foksany and Rimnick. The new administration is entirely com-

* He is at the present time, (September) according to the latest and most authentic account of him, a prisoner to his cousin and successor, who has passed his honour for the inviolability of the person of Selim.

posed of persons devoted to the janizaries. We know not what disposition it will shew towards foreign powers.

CHAPTER XX.

RUSSIA.

The empire of Russia is the largest upon the whole globe. Its boundaries are Poland and the Frozen Sea, Sweden and China. It is so extensive that when it is noon in the western, it is nearly midnight in the eastern parts of this extensive empire.

The foundation of this vast empire, which was civilized by the extraordinary labors of Peter the Great, and of those princess who have borne the sceptre since, and made so conspicuous a figure in the theatre of the world, was not laid till the ninth century of the Christian æra.

The same origin is usually ascribed to the inhabitants of this country, as to those of Poland, &c. All the colonies of the ancient and extensive nation of Sarmatia, took in the sixth century the general name *Sclavi*, by which these plunderers meant to express that they were pursuers of glory, for such is the signification of that word in the Sclavonian language. That of Russia, or Rossaia, implies a people that are dispersed or divided.

The earliest authentic account of this country begins in the ninth century, when oppressed by the Khosares, a tribe of wanderers who inhabited the coast of the Black Sea, they implored the aid of the Varages, another numerous and powerful tribe on the confines of the Baltic. Rurick, the Varagean general, at the head of a large army, penetrated into Russia, and re-established peace, acquired the supreme dominion, and united the several provinces of the empire, A. D. 861. The

family of Rurick were styled Grand Dukes* of Kiow, from the province in which they resided.

Wolodimer first introduced Christianity, A. D. 981.

We know little of the succeeding sovereigns. They remained buried in barbarism and obscurity till JOHN BASILOWITZ I. great duke, threw off the yoke of the Tartars, A. D. 1486, to whom Russia had been, during the space of two centuries, tributary; expelled the Tartar officers from Moscow; invaded their territories; made himself master of Novogorod, and also of Cassan, where he was crowned with the diadem of that country; and assumed the title of Tzar, which in the Sclavonian language signifies king or emperor. The reign of this prince is the epoch of the grandeur of the Russian empire.

To these acquisitions his grandson JOHN BASILOWITZ II. added Astracan, and also Siberia, hitherto as little known to the Russians as Mexico was to the Spaniards before the expedition of Cortez, and as easily conquered. This prince died A. D. 1584, and was succeeded by a race of weak despotic sovereigns; in the course of whose reigns the kingdom was torn in pieces by civil wars, and became the prey of the Poles and Swedes.

At length MICHAEL THEODOROWITZ, son of Romanow, bishop of Rostow, afterwards patriarch, related by females to the tzar John Basilowitz, was raised to the throne; and this prince, having concluded a peace with Sweden and Poland, in 1618, restored tran-

* The sovereigns of Russia bore, in their own language, the name of Velik Knez, i. e. great prince, great lord, great chief, which in Christian countries was afterwards rendered by that of grand duke. The czar Michael Federovitz, on occasion of the Holstein embassy, assumed the titles of Great Knez and Great Lord, Conservator of all the Russias, Prince of Wolodimir, Moscow, Novogorod, &c. Tzar of Casan, Tzar of Astracan, Tzar of Siberia. The name of Tzar was, therefore, the title of those Oriental princes, and therefore it is more probable for it to be derived from the Tshas of Persia, than from the Roman Cæsars, whose name very likely never reached the ears of the Siberian tzars on the banks of the Oby.—See Dr. Turner's epitome.

quility to Russia, and transmitted the crown to his descendants.*

His son Alexis Michaelowitz (or son of Michael) succeeded in 1645, and published the first code of Russian laws. He likewise introduced both the linen and silk manufactures, which were not indeed of any long continuance, yet he had the merit of their first erection. He peopled the deserts towards the Wolga and the Kama with Polish and Tartarian families which had been made prisoners of war. Before his reign the several captives were reduced to slavery; but Alexis employed them in tilling the lands. He died suddenly, at the age of 46, A. D. 1675, after shewing himself worthy of being father to Peter the Great.

Alexis left behind him three sons, and a daughter who was a woman of great intrigue and spirit. FEODOR or THEODORE, the eldest, ascended the throne at the age of fifteen; a prince of a weak and sickly constitution. On his death, his two brothers

JOHN and PETER were proclaimed joint sovereigns, associating their sister SOPHIA in the government, as co-regent. John died in 1689, and Sophia having been confined to a monastery, Peter reigned sole sovereign, under the title of Peter I. or Peter the Great.

This was one of the most extraordinary men that ever appeared on the stage of human life. Animated by the noble ambition of acquiring instruction, and of carrying back to his people the improvement of other nations, he quitted his dominions, in 1697, as a private gentleman, in the retinue of three ambassadors, whom he sent to different courts of Europe.

As soon as Peter arrived at Amsterdam, he applied himself to the study of commerce and the mechanical arts; and in order more completely to acquire the art of ship-building, he entered himself as a carpenter in one of the principal dock-yards, and laboured and lived, in all respects, as the common journeymen. At his lei-

* Modern Europe—Ludolf—Puffendorf—Petreius, &c.

sure hours he studied natural philosophy, navigation, surgery, and other sciences, as may be necessary to the sovereign of a barbarous people. From Holland he passed into England, where he perfected himself in the art of ship-building. King William, in order to gain his favour, entertained him with a naval review, made him a present of an elegant yacht, and permitted him to engage in his service a number of ingenious artificers. Thus instructed, and attended by several men of science, Peter returned to Russia, after an absence of near two years, with all the useful and many of the ornamental arts in his train.*

Under the wise government of this prince, the whole face of things was changed; and Russia, before the seat of ignorance and barbarity, was raised to the highest pitch of strength and glory. He assumed the title of emperor, which was formally acknowledged by all the European powers; and by his noble institutions, liberal attempts to civilize his people, and admirable regulation of the courts of justice, he deserves to be called the founder of the Russian empire.

Peter died A. D. 1724, and was succeeded in his throne by Czarina Catherine, who reigned in a manner becoming the widow of Peter the Great.

Peter II. (grandson of Peter I.) succeeded to the imperial crown, on the death of Catherine, A. D. 1727. The reign of this prince was turbulent, though short, for he fell a victim to the small-pox, A. D. 1730.

The male issue of Peter the Great being now extinct, the Russians raised ANNE, duchess of Courland, second daughter of John, Peter's eldest brother, to the throne. Her reign was glorious and happy. Dying without issue,

JOHN, the son of her niece Catharine, princess of Mecklenburg, by Anthony Ulric, duke of Brunswick-Woolfenbuttle, was invested with the imperial ensigns

* Voltaire's Russia. Mod. Europe.

at the age of two years. He was soon after deposed, sent into Siberia, and murdered.

ELIZABETH, A. D. 1740, second daughter of Peter the Great, was, on this revolution, raised to the throne. The reign of this empress was uncommonly glorious. She abolished all capital punishments, and introduced a spirit of lenity, in the operations of government, before unknown in Russia. Her fleets and armies were every where victorious.

She was succeeded, A. D. 1762, in the august throne, by her nephew, the duke of Holstein, under the name of

PETER III. This prince began his reign with regulating, on the most generous principles, his interior government. He freed the nobility and gentry from all slavish vassalage, and put them on a footing with those of the same rank in other European countries. He recalled many unhappy exiles from Siberia, and lessened the taxes upon certain necessaries of life, to the great relief of the poor. These first measures seemed well calculated to procure him the affections of his people; but being of a rash and irregular turn of mind, he in many instances shocked their prejudices, even while he consulted their interests. He disgusted both the army and the church, the two chief pillars of absolute sway; the former by the manifest preference which he gave to his Holstein guards, and to all the officers of that country; the latter, by his contempt of the Greek communion, having been bred a Lutheran, and by certain innovations in regard to images; but more especially by an attempt to moderate the revenues of the clergy, and an order that they should no longer be "distinguished by beards"

These were high causes of discontent, and threatened the throne with all the violence of civil war. But Peter's misfortunes immediately arose from a matrimonial feud—from the bosom of his own family. He had long slighted his concert, Catherine, of the house of Anhalt Zerbst, (a woman of a masculine disposition and sound understanding, by whose councils he might have pro-

fited) and now openly lived with the countess of Worowzoff, niece to the chancellor of that name. To this lady he seemed devoted with so strong a passion, that it was generally believed he had some thoughts of shutting the empress up in a convent, and of raising the countess to a partnership of his throne. The dissatisfied part of the nobility, clergy, and chief officers of the army, taking advantage of that domestic dissension, assembled, on the 28th of June, 1762, in the absence of the czar; deposed him formally, and invested Catherine with the imperial ensigns.

The new empress marched at the head of the malecontents in quest of her husband. Peter was solacing himself with his mistress at one of his houses of pleasure, and expressed the utmost surprise at being told the sceptre was departed from him. When convinced of the fatal truth, he attempted to escape to Holstein, but was seized and thrown into prison, where he expired a few days after, of what was called an *hæmorrhoidal-colic*, to which he was said to have been subject. His death, by reason of the steps that had preceded it, occasioned no speculation. It was indeed an event universally expected. Princes dethroned by their subjects, are seldom allowed to languish long in the gloom of a dungeon. The jealousy of the successor, or the fears of some principal conspirator, commonly make few their moments of trouble.

The reign of Catherine II. was the admiration of Europe. She triumphed over the Turks, defeated a formidable impostor; extended the commerce and greatly increased the navy of Russia. But the life of this great woman was not without its blemishes. Her ambition was unbounded, and her amours a disgrace to her memory. She died the 17th of November, 1796, and was succeeded by her son

Paul Petrowitz. The reign of this prince was directly the reverse of that of his mother. Occupied about trifles, he was the perpetual plague of his army.—With him it was a heinous offence to wear a round hat, or to deviate in the least from military etiquette; but

his soul was not formed for daring exploits. His nobles and great officers, wearied by his tyrannies, seized him, in order to his deposition; but he struggling against their attempts they strangled him with a sash on the 25th March, 1801.

His son, ALEXANDER PAULOWITZ, the present emperor, who ascended the throne of Russia at the age of 24, is a young prince greatly admired for the suavity of his disposition.

RELIGION OF THE RUSSIANS.—The Russians profess the religion of the Greek church, which was first embraced by the great Duchess, Ogla, sovereign of Russia, in 955. The external part of their religion consists in the number and severity of their fasts, in which they greatly surpass the Romish church, amounting to two-thirds of the year. Their usual weekly fasts are on Wednesdays and Fridays. In Lent, they neither eat flesh, milk, eggs, nor butter, but confine themselves to vegetables, bread, and fish fried in oil.

The eighth week before Easter, is called "The butter week," and may be considered as the Russian carnival, it being spent in all kinds of entertainments and every species of licentiousness.

A late writer, who made a journey into Siberia, describes the state of religion in Russia in the following manner: "The common people are bigoted even to fanaticism in favour of the Greek religion: this extravagance increases the farther we get from the capital; but these people are so little acquainted with their religion, that they are persuaded they follow all its duties by complying with some external ceremonies, and especially by keeping Lent fasts with the greatest strictness. In other respects, they give themselves up to debauchery, and to every kind of vice. Morality is less to be met with among the Russians, than among the Pagans their neighbors. The opinions of the Russians with regard to Christianity are so extraordinary, that it should seem as if that religion, so well adapted in itself to the happiness and good order of society, had only served to make this people more wicked. A murderer was taken and

condemned; and being asked in the course of his trial, whether he kept the Lent fasts? he appeared as much surprised as the most upright man would have been if his honesty had been called in question. He immediately answered with warmth, that he was incapable of neglecting the duties of his religion. Yet this man was at the head of a set of ruffians, and whenever they seized upon any traveller, he readily gave up all the booty to his companions, on condition they delivered up to him the unhappy victims alive. He first undressed them, and tied them naked to a tree, without any regard to their sex: he then opened their breast near the heart, and drank their blood. He declared that he took great pleasure in seeing the dreadful contortions and convulsions of these wretched people."—*Chappe.*

The Russian parish priests are called *Papas*, or popes, a word signifying father, and indiscriminately applied, in the early ages of christianity, to all ecclesiastics, without distinction, until it was confined to the bishop of Rome, by an edict of George VII. but this order was not acceded to by the clergy of the Greek communion.

The parochial clergy in Russia are generally the refuse of the people; and indolent and illiterate.

The nobility of Russia never enter into the church, the priesthood is composed entirely of the common people. This disjunction of the different orders of the state tends greatly to debase the manners, and contract the pursuits of each. The alliance between church and state is a political axiom not yet understood in this empire; and where adapted, may be said to "savour more of the things that be of man than of those which be of God," although it may promote general science, and tend to polish manners.—*Dr. King.*

CHAPTER XXI.

THE NORTHERN KINGDOMS OF SWEDEN, DENMARK, AND NORWAY.

The northern peninsula of Europe, which comprehends the present kingdoms of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, formed part of ancient Scandinavia.

The rude and warlike inhabitants of this desert, known by the general name of Goths, seeking a milder climate, and lands more fertile than their forests and mountains, made frequent incursions on the continent, and at last became so formidable that they broke the Roman empire, and established powerful monarchies in Gaul, Spain, and Italy.

The Religion of the ancient Goths, or Scandinavians, if the wild opinion of savages can deserve that name, was like themselves, bloody and barbarous; but formed to inspire the most enthusiastic courage, and the most unremitted perseverance in toil. Odin, whom the Saxons called Woden, was their supreme divinity.—They painted him as the god of *terror*,—the author of *devastation*,—and the father of *carnage*—And they worshipped him accordingly. They sacrificed human victims to him; they believed those would stand highest in his favour who had killed most warriors in the field; that after death the brave would be admitted into his palace, and have the happiness of drinking beer (their favourite liquor) out of the skulls of their enemies.*

SWEDEN.

That part of Scandinavia, now called Sweden, is bounded by the Baltic sea on the south, by the Norwegian Lapland on the north, by Russia on the east, and on the west by the mountains of Norway.

---

* Modern Europe, Gibbon, &c.

No authentic annals of its early inhabitants are now extant. In the first periods of its history, we find it, like the other northern countries of Europe, parcelled into small independent states, which were governed by their own respective general or chieftain, who was commonly stiled king.

There is no relying on what has been written concerning Sweden, till Christianity was introduced, about the middle of the ninth century.

From this period to A. D. 1150, when king ERIC IX. compelled the Finlanders to receive the Christian faith, and ordered the ancient laws and constitutions of the kingdom to be collected in one volume, bearing the title of "King Eric's laws,"—nothing occurs in the Swedish history that merits particular attention. The chronology of this kingdom, which before was very doubtful, from this time is more certain.

MAGNUS LADULAS, crowned in 1276, appears to be the first king of Sweden who pursued a regular system to increase his authority, and with this view made the augmentation of the revenues of the crown his particular study. This able and judicious prince succeeded in making himself independent of his people; but his successors not maintaining their authority with equal ability, the kingdom was thrown into the greatest disorder, and continual revolutions followed till the union of Sweden, Denmark and Norway, in the fourteenth century, under the celebrated Margaret Waldemar, commonly styled the *Semiramis* of the north.

Margaret was daughter of Waldemar III. king of Denmark. She had been married to Hacquin, king of Norway, and son of Magnus III. king of Sweden. On the death of her son Olaus, the last male heir of the three northern crowns (which were at that time more elective than hereditary) she succeeded, by the consent of the states, to the Danish throne. She was elected queen of Norway, which she governed as regent, and the Swedes, being oppressed by their king, Albert, made Margaret a solemn tender of their crown. She marched to their assistance, expelled Albert, and assumed the reins of

government, A. D. 1394. Thus possessed of three kingdoms, she formed the grand political design of a perpetual union, which she accomplished (*pro tempore* only) by the famous treaty of Calamar, A. D. 1397.—This union proved to be the source of those wars which raged in Sweden and Denmark for an hundred years.

Under Eric, the successor of Margaret, the Swedes revolted, choosing their grand marshal *Charles Canutson*, king. They, however, returned to their allegiance under Christiern I. of Denmark. But they again revolted from the same prince—Again renewed the union of *Calamar*, under John his successor—Revolted a third time, and were finally by the arms of Christiern II. reduced to the condition of a conquered people.

To secure himself on the throne of Sweden, Christiern II. commanded the Senators and chief of the nobility to be massacred at Stockholm, November 9th, A. D. 1520. This, perhaps, was one of the most tragical scenes in the history of the human race. Under the disguise of friendship, he had invited the senators and grandees to a sumptuous entertainment. In the unsuspicious hour of convivality, the hall was filled with armed men, and ninety-four persons of distinction were led from the palace to the scaffold erected before the door, and executed.*

From his tyrannical government the Swedes were delivered by the fortitude and zeal of GUSTAVUS VASA, a descendant of the ancient kings, and whose father had been put to death in the late massacre.

This brave prince, to escape the fury of the tyrant, concealed himself among the mountains of Dalecarlia.—There, bewildered, destitute of every necessary and ready to perish with hunger, he entered himself among the miners, and worked under ground for bread. He afterwards made himself known to them at their annual feast, and exhorted them to assist him in restoring the liberties of his country. Animated with rage against

* Vertot. Revolut. Sweden.

their oppressors, they fled to arms. Gustavus gaining many partizans in all corners of the kingdom, saw himself every where victorious. Every thing yielded to his valor and good fortune, and the regal dignity was conferred on him as the reward of his merit, A. D. 1523.

This brave and patriotic prince introduced and established by law the Protestant religion, and made commerce and the arts flourish by his wise policy. The affairs of the kingdom being thus happily settled, the crown was declared to be hereditary by the states of Westeraas, A. D. 1544.

JOHN, his son, ventured to introduce a new Liturgy, A. D. 1577, and attempted in vain to re-establish the Catholic religion. Dying in 1592, he left the crown to his son

SIGISMUND, who five years before had been elected king of Poland. This prince, like his father, being a zealous catholic, endeavored to restore popery, for which he was dethroned, 1604, and his heirs excluded from the succession. His uncle, CHARLES IX. was raised to the sovereignty by the states. He had been chiefly instrumental in preserving their religious liberties. On his death, in 1611, the sceptre passed to his son, the celebrated

GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS, whose reign is one of the most illustrious periods in the annals of this or any other kingdom. He subdued Ingria, Livonia, and Pomerania; but, in the midst of all his victories over the ablest of the Austrian generals, he was unfortunately killed at the battle of Lutzen, in 1632.

His daughter Christina succeeded. She was not less memorable for her passion for literature, and generous patronage of learned men, than for her resignation of the crown, in 1654, to her cousin

CHARLES AUGUSTUS, who ascended the throne of Sweden under the name of Charles X. This prince was successful against the Poles, and drove the Danes out of the provinces of Soonen, Smaland, Haland, Ble-

kingen, and Bohus-Lehn, which he added to his dominions. He was succeeded, in 1660, by his son CHARLES XI. in whose reign the power of the Swedish monarchs became absolute, 1671. In 1697, Charles died, and the vacant throne was filled by his son

CHARLES XII. one of the most extraordinary men that ever appeared on the earth. This young hero, when scarcely nineteen, had successively defeated Frederick IV. of Denmark, Augustus king of Poland, whom he afterwards dethroned; and the czar Peter the Great—His restless ambition suggested to him the entire conquest of Russia. With this view he collected a powerful army. The Muscovites in all quarters fled before him; and after several advantages gained over the czar's forces, he marched towards the Russian capital Moscow: but at the battle of Pultowa he was defeated, his army cut to pieces, himself wounded, and obliged to fly into Turkey. The Ottoman court giving him no hopes of assistance, he fortified himself in his small retreat at Bender, and, with only about forty domestics, defended it against the Russians, not abandoning it till they had set it on fire. From Bender he fled to Demotika; but displeased with his situation there, he resolved to keep his bed as long as he was obliged to stay in it. This he actually did for ten months feigning himself sick. At length travelling post, with only two companions, through Franconia and Mecklenburgh, he arrived at Stralsund in November, 1714. Besieged in this city, he escaped to Sweden in the most deplorable condition. Yet these misfortunes did not abate his rage for fighting: he raised a new army, attacked Norway, and laid siege to Frederickshall, where he was killed by a half pound ball, from a cannon loaded with grape shot, as he was viewing their approaches by star-light, October, 1718.

On the death of Charles, the states of the kingdom, by a free and voluntary choice, elected his sister, ULICA ELEANORA, for their queen. But they obliged her, by a solemn act, to renounce all hereditary claim to the crown, that she might hold it entirely by the suffrage of the peo-

ple; while she bound herself by the most sacred oaths never to attempt the re-establishment of arbitrary power: and sacrificing, soon after, the love of royalty to conjugal affection, she married the prince of Hesse, who was chosen by the states, and mounted the throne, A. D. 1720.

FREDERIC. By the new plan of government which was established, the legislative authority was placed in the diet, and the executive rested in the senate. The king's consent was necessary for making war or peace; and all laws and ordinances were published in his name. Frederic dying without issue, (1751) the states elected

ADOLPHUS FREDERIC, a near relation to the late monarch, a prince of very moderate abilities. His reign was made troublesome by the factions in the senate. On his death, in 1771, the Swedish sceptre was given to his son,

GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS III. who with a bold hand seized upon that power, which, it must be confessed, had been greatly abused while lodged in the hands of the states. In 1772, the Swedish monarch declared himself absolute, notwithstanding the solemn oath to the contrary, that had been administered to him at his coronation. This act of perjury and perfidy brought along with it its own punishment. The remaining twenty years of the life of Gustavus were spent in jealous watchings and fears of his nobles; and he was reduced to the necessity of becoming a tool of the court of Versailles, in order to obtain from France those supplies which he was afraid to ask from the states of Sweden! On the 16th of March, 1792, the king received an anonymous letter, advising him not to go to the masquerade of that evening, for which he was then preparing. He neglected the caution, and was shot in consequence. The assasin, a nobleman of the name of *Ankarstrom*, when apprehended, seemed to glory in what he termed an act of patriotism! The wounded monarch lingered till the 29th of the same month, and then expired. He was succeeded by his son, GUSTAVUS IV. who is the present reigning sovereign. *Turner.*

RELIGION.—The religion of the Swedes was formerly involved in the greatest ignorance and idolatry. The city of Upsal was the seat of their superstitious worship. Until the end of the eleventh century, a celebrated temple remained at Upsal, which was enriched with the gold which the Scandinavians had acquired in their piratical adventures, and sanctified by the uncouth representations of their three principal deities, the god of war, the goddess of generation, and the god of thunder. In the general festival that was solemnized every ninth year, nine animals of every species, without excepting the *human*, were sacrificed, and their bloody bodies suspended in the sacred grove adjacent to the temple. This temple was destroyed in the year 1075; and afterwards a christian cathedral was erected on its ruins.

The emperor Charlemagne sent hither the celebrated *Herbert*, who preached the gospel in East Gothland. In the middle ages the clergy had obtained the possession of several large estates; and the pope assumed a great power over the temporal concerns of the kingdom. These abuses procured *Olaus Petri*, a disciple of Luther, a favourable reception in Sweden, where he promulgated the pure doctrines of the gospel; and that great king, Gustavus Vasa, happily introduced the reformation into Sweden. In 1741, the king, by a royal edict, directed that the Calvinists and members of the church of England should enjoy the free exercise of their religion in all the sea-ports, except that of Carlscroon.

When Lutheranism became the established religion in Sweden, the Swedes, to express their resentment against the Romish priests, by whom they had been grievously oppressed, and to render the *vows of chastity* made by that order of men, more certainly, though less meritoriously, observed, passed a law, that every ecclesiastic of that church, found in the kingdom, should undergo castration. Prior refers to this in his tale of Paul Purganti and his wife, when he makes the lady

express her resentment against unfaithful husbands, by saying—

> "They should be hanged, or starv'd, or flay'd,
> Or serv'd like Romish priests in Swede."

DENMARK.

This kingdom, which is part of the ancient Scandinavia, is at present bounded on the south by Holstein, on the north and on the west by the German Ocean, and on the east by the Baltic.

The old inhabitants of this northern region of Europe were rude, fierce, and martial. Strangers to art and industry, they subsisted by hunting, pasturage, and plunder; neglecting agriculture, their uncultivated territories soon became over stocked, and colonies issued forth from time to time, under chieftains or generals, which at last almost deluged every part of Europe.—In these migrations they occasionally bore the appellation of Cimbres, Goths, Lombards, Angles, and Danes.

These northern adventurers, after having harrassed the coasts of France, with their robberies, and piracies, and depredations, under the name of Normans, from their northern situation, extended their ravages to Britain, where they were known by the general name of Danes.

They first landed in the isle of Shepy, pillaged it, and carried off their booty with impunity. The plunderers continued their incursions till the year 1012, when their king, Seveno, made a complete conquest of England, and left it to his son Canute, who was king of England, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden.

During the whole of this period, the history of Denmark is involved in great uncertainty. But few important and interesting events have been recorded that may be relied upon, prior to the reign of the famous *Margaret Waldemar*, who as we have already mentioned, united in her own person the crowns of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, A. D. 1397.

This union did not last longer than the beginning of the 16th century, when Christiern II. one of the greatest tyrants that have disgraced the annals of history, was obliged to renounce all claim to Denmark, and Norway.—From this period nothing worth remark occurs in the history of Denmark.

The present king of Denmark is Christian VII. He married Caroline Matilda, sister to king George III. of England. She, though an amiable and faithful wife, was made prisoner through the unwarrantable intrigues of the queen dowager, January 16th, 1772, and conducted by a British squadron in the May following, to the fortress of Zell, where she died of a broken heart.

The Danish crown has been hereditary since the year 1600, and absolute power is annexed to it. Norway was originally divided into small independent principalities, which continued till the ninth century, when they were all united under Herald Harfager.

This kingdom was united to the crown of Denmark by Margaret, and has ever since been governed by viceroys. It is a very barren and uncultivated country, and the regal power is absolute.

Religion.—The Danes, in ancient times, paid religious worship to the gods Fryer, Thyr, Freya, Thor, and Odin; and in the Danish language, four days in the week still retain the names of four of these deities, of which Odin was the chief. Several attempts were made, at different times, in the middle ages, to convert the Danes to christianity; and in the year 812, Ebbo, the bishop of Reims, preached the gospel in Denmark. King Herald Clag, who fled for refuge to the emperor Lewis, consenting to be baptized, was attended back to his kingdom by several monks, who founded churches at many places in Denmark. But the succeeding kings were the inveterate enemies of the Christians, and most cruelly persecuted the new converts. After various vicissitudes of fortune, they at length obtained a free toleration from king Siveno, about the year 1000.

In the reign of Frederick I. in 1537, at the diet held at Copenhagen, the Lutheran was made the established

religion. Other religious sects, as the Calvinists, the Jews, the Quakers, &c. enjoy the free exercises of worship throughout the Danish dominions.

The ecclesiastical jurisdiction is under bishops: there are six in Denmark, four in Norway, and two in Iceland. The revenue of the Danish clergy, (which arises partly from tythes, and partly from the liberality of their respective flocks) is very considerable. In Denmark the living seldom exceeds 400*l.* or is less than 60*l.* a year.

A preacher's widow in Denmark receives half the benefit of the first year, and the eighth part of the income every year after, from the successor of her deceased husband. In the principal towns of every diocese is also a widow's-box, in which every preacher puts a certain sum; and if his widow survives him, she enjoys an annuity in proportion to what he has contributed.—*Coxe's Travels.*

CHAPTER XXII.

CHINA.

The extensive empire of China is situated in the finest part of Asia, on its eastern extremity: it has Tartary to the N.; Pegu, Siam, and Cochin-China, to the S.; Tibet to the W.; and the Pacific Ocean to the E. Its extent from N. to S. is about twenty-two degrees of latitude, being from 42 to 20; and from E. to W. about twenty degrees of longitude, that is from 101 to 121. It is composed of sixteen very large provinces, fifteen of which are within the great wall, and one without.

The origin of the Chinese empire is extremely obscure. The common traditional history of that monarchy is undoubtedly false, as forty thousand years are supposed to have passed since its foundation; but according to their regular history, in which the learned are pretty well agreed, the dynasties, or royal families of China, whence their kings have sprung, are supposed to

have commenced about 2207 years before the Christian æra. Some have conjectured that Noah retired to China after the flood; others that some of his descendants, in the second or third generation, first settled there; whilst some learned men have supposed, particularly M. Huet, and M. de Guignes, that China was first peopled by colonies from Egypt, others have strenuously maintained the contrary opinion, namely, that Egypt was peopled from China. Each of these conclusions are founded on the great conformity which appears between the Chinese and Egyptian customs. The foundation of the Chinese monarchy is said to have been laid by Yu or Hya, whose virtue, wisdom, and power, added to his great age, induced the people to listen to him as to an oracle; and as he regulated all private, as well as political and religious affairs, the state soon became in a flourishing condition.

The first dynasty of Kings in China, M. de Guignes supposes to have been a succession of the kings of Thebes in Egypt, but that no Egyptian colony settled in China until about the year 1122 before the Christian æra. The same learned inquirer seems fully to have satisfied himself, that he had discovered a very striking conformity between the ancient Phœnician alphabet and that of the Chinese; he has likewise taken great pains to convince the world, that the hieroglyphics of the Egyptians are equally manifest in the Chinese writings.

Among the Chinese philosophers some have maintained the eternity of the world, and the boasted antiquity of the Chinese empire agrees very well with such an opinion, some computations carrying up their traditions of the first man, whom they call Poan-Kou, very near one hundred thousand years before the time of Confucius. This marvellous assumption, in itself so very incredible as to stand in need of the most satisfactory proof, is in fact very feebly supported, and blended with most absurd fictions; such as that in the reign of the emperor Yau the sun was observed not to set for ten days. Father Fouquet, bishop of Eleutheropolis,

who examined this subject deeply, makes the result of his enquiries to be, that the æra of the Chinese history, so far as it is genuine, should commence about four hundred years before Christ; some, he says, who have investigated the matter, adduce strong reasons for bringing it still lower. It must be observed, however, that the period settled by the bishop involves in fable even the time of Confucius. He admits, indeed, that the Chinese nation may be nearly as old as the deluge; but then he contends their history deserves very little credit any farther back than the period he assigns.—See a Chronological Table, consisting of three sheets, published at Rome in the year 1729.

Of the literature of China, the largest collection in Europe is preserved in the imperial academy at Petersburg; according to Mr. Coxe it is composed of 2800 different pieces; but in the late French king's library was deposited a copy of the great annals of the Chinese empire, which consists of near 700 volumes, of which prodigious work a chronological abridgment was published at China the beginning of the present century, in one hundred volumes, from which, and from other materials, the Abbé Grosier has published in French the Annals of China, in twelve quarto volumes. The same laborious examiner and able writer has lately favored the world with much valuable information concerning the Chinese, in a work entitled *Description General de la Chine*, from which the reader will find that we have frequently drawn our information.

Upon a close and impartial examination of the proofs on which the claim of the Chinese to an almost inconceivable antiquity is raised, nothing appears of sufficient force to invalidate the Mosaic account of the creation of the world and the Hebrew chronology, though some writers have urged them for that purpose. Having premised thus much, we shall proceed to give a short sketch of the history of China.

The form of government in China appears to have been invariably monarchical, and the succession generally hereditary. The history divides the emperors into

twenty-two dynasties, or epochas of each imperial family that has successively filled the throne.

China is reported to have been first visited by an European in the thirteenth century, it being then discovered by Marco Paulo, a Venetian, who travelled thither over land. His account was afterwards confirmed by the Portuguese, in the beginning of the sixteenth century, when the famous Albuquerque, in the reign of Emanuel, visited the remote coast. An earlier visit to China we shall however speak of in the sequel.

The history of China, till the middle of the last century, furnishes very few interesting events; it is little better than a dry narrative of the names and successions of their different emperors, and the frequent different civil wars which arose between them and the petty princes.—These occasioned no revolutions in the form of government, and furnished no important facts for the historian.

The Abbé Grosier, speaking of the great wall, which was built more than 2100 years since, to prevent the incursions of the Tartars, says, "This prodigious work effaces the most wonderful and gigantic performances of antiquity: the pyramids of Egypt are nothing in comparison with a wall that extends through three great provinces, and traverses an extent of country for five hundred leagues." The Abbé Raynal has the following remark on this erection. "The fortifying such a work proves that the empire must then have been prodigiously populous. If the Chinese had been men of courage they would themselves have attacked the roving tribes, or have kept them in awe by well disciplined armies: if they had been skilled in the art of war, they would have known that lines continued through such an extent could not be defended in every part, and that if they were broken out in one place, all the fortification would become useless." *Hist. Politique liv.* v. This wall is about 26 feet high; at its base it is about 20 feet thick; its breadth at top is about 15, where it is well paved and has a parapet on each side. Towers are erected on it at about 100 yards distance, the number of which is computed at 45,000. The Tartars indeed seem to have

been the only foreign enemy of the Chinese until about the thirteenth century; when the conquest of Japan was projected by some of their emperors, which occasioned frequent wars between the two states.

Towards the end of the thirteenth century the emperor Shi-tsu undertook the conquest of Japan, for which purpose he transported thither an army of 100,000 men: but the design miscarried, and the whole armament being shipwrecked was totally lost; so that after a conflict continued for several years, he was at length obliged to abandon his enterprise, and retire into his own territories.

In 1628 Way-Tsong, or Zun Ching, mounted the imperial throne of China; in him the Chinese race of emperors terminated, and the 22d dynasty began in the person of his successor Tsing, the Tartarian conqueror, who effected the greatest revolution in the empire of China that their annals record.

This event happened in the year 1644, when the empire was torn and enfeebled by domestic dissentions. The discontented parties were then so numerous, that there were no less than eight different armies under the command of as many chiefs. In this season of general anarchy, the Tartars, who had become powerful by being incorporated with the Manchews, having ravaged the northern provinces of the empire with impunity, seized upon the capital in the year 1644, and soon after subjected the whole kingdom.

It is truly wonderful that so powerful an empire, almost equal to Europe in extent, and containing double its number of inhabitants, (Osbeck computing the empire to contain fifty-eight millions of people from twenty to sixty years of age) should, in the course of a very few years, be brought under subjection to a foreign prince: but the moderation and wisdom of the Tartarian emperors effected as much as their arms; and the attachment which they shewed to the established laws and forms of government, and their impartiality in dispensing honours and emoluments, completed their conquest.

Of the history of China, and the succession of emperors, for the last forty years, we have no certain accounts. The only Europeans who resort to Pekin are the Russians, who carry on a very lucrative inland trade with the empire, particularly in furs, which are obtained from Kamptschatka, some islands between the continents of Asia and America, and the western coast of the latter continent. The English and Americans have of late years brought furs to Canton, which have found a good market there.

The reigning emperor of China was born on the 17th of September, 1710; he is named, according to some writers, *Kam-hi*. When lord Macartney was introduced in 1793, this prince had reigned 57 years.

GOVERNMENT.—The emperor is an absolute monarch, and the respect paid to him is a kind of adoration; his commands are as readily and as strictly obeyed as if they came from heaven, nor are any admitted to speak to him but on their knees; not even his eldest brother, unless it be at his command. None, except the lords who attend him, are allowed to stand in his presence; but when they speak to him, they put only one knee to the ground.

The officers receive the same honours when they represent the emperor's person, or give his orders, either as mandarines of the presence, or as envoys. His governors also receive the same honours when they administer justice, because they are his representatives. Indeed such respect is paid to the emperor, that the princes of the blood, and all the grandees of the court, not only kneel before him, but before his chair, his throne, his clothes, and every thing made for his particular use.

Persons of the highest rank are not allowed to ride on horseback, or to pass in a chaise before the gates of his palace, but are obliged to alight at a place appointed for that purpose. If the emperor falls dangerously ill, it creates a general alarm; the mandarines assemble in one of the courts of the palace, and pass whole days and nights, without regard to the inclemency of the air or

the rigour of the season, imploring heaven on their bended knees to restore his health.

Yellow is the imperial colour, and none are allowed to wear it but the emperor and those who attend his person. His vest is adorned with dragons that have five claws: this is his coat of arms, which none else must bear. He has the disposal of the lives and fortunes of his subjects, nor can any criminal suffer death till he has confirmed the sentence.

In order to preserve their reputation, the emperors are continually enquiring into the state of the empire, affecting a kind of paternal care for their people; particularly when any of the provinces are afflicted with calamities, the emperor shuts himself up in his palace, abstains from all pleasures, and publishes decrees to ease such provinces of their usual taxes.

The revenues of the emperor are amazingly great; but it is not easy to give an exact account of them, because the annual tribute is paid partly in money and partly in commodities; it particularly arises from the produce of the lands, as rice, wheat, and millet; from salt, silks, stuffs, linen, cotton, with innumerable other articles. All these, together with the customs and forfeited estates, annually amount to above twenty-one millions sterling. Osbeck says, that a poll-tax is levied on each person in China from the age of twenty to that of sixty, and he makes the number from whom it is collected to amount to fifty-eight millions.

The troops constantly kept in pay amount to about seven hundred thousand soldiers; these are stationed near the great wall, and other fortified places; a part of these also compose the emperor's guards, and those of the mandarines, whom they escort on their journies, and at night keep watch about their barks or at their inns. Near five hundred and sixty-five thousand horses are retained to remount the cavalry, and for the use of the posts and couriers who convey the king's orders, and those of the tribunals, into the provinces.

The Abbé Grosier speaks very particularly concerning the military state of this empire. No troops he says

are better paid, better clothed, or better armed: but they have less dicipline than the European troops, and are totally deficient in courage. According to Raynal, the art of war is one of the arts in which the Chinese have made the least progress. "It is natural to imagine," continues that writer, "that a nation, whose whole conduct is influenced by ceremonies, precepts and customs, either of private or public institution, should of course be pliant, moderate, and inclined to tranquility and peace. The spirit of humanity which they imbibe in their tender years, makes them look with abhorrence on those sanguinary scenes of rapine and massacre, that are so familiar to nations where the hero and the warrior are formed. When a nation possesses the art of subduing its conquerors by its manners, it has no occasion to overcome its enemies by force of arms." *Hist. pol. liv.* I. Grosier observes, that the military profession is here held in little estimation. The foot soldier is armed with a pike and a sabre: some have firelocks, and others a bow and arrow. The arms of the cavalry consist of an helmet, a breast-plate, a lance, and a large sabre.—The pay of a foot soldier is five sous of fine silver, or two pence English, and a measure of rice a day. The horsemen have ten sous and two measures of beans, beside arrears, which are paid every two months.—The best soldiers of the empire are drawn from the three northern provinces. If the use of artillery was ever known in ancient times, it was totally lost at the commencement of the last century. Grosier says, there are still to be seen at Nanking three or four mortars, but not a single Chinese could be found to use them.—In the year 1621 the city of Macao presented three pieces of cannon to the emperor, but it was necessary to send three men to manage them. Afterwards Father Adam Schaal, a Jesuit missionary, first instructed the Chinese in the management of cannon; another Jesuit named Verbiest, superintended, by order of the emperor, a foundery, from which they were supplied with upward of three hundred pieces of artillery. The same father likewise instructed them in the art of fortification,

and introduced among the Chinese the modern European rules of architecture.—*Description general de la Chine par l'Abbe Grosier.*

Here are two sovereign councils; one called the extraordinary council, which is composed of princes of the blood; the other, called the council in ordinary, has, besides the princes, several ministers of state named colaos, who examine all state affairs, and make their report to the emperor, who gives directions accordingly.

The pomp with which he goes to make his offerings in the temple of Tien is very extraordinary. The procession begins with twenty-four drums, ranked in two files, and twenty-four trumpets, formed of a wood greatly esteemed by the Chinese. After them follow twenty-four men in a line, armed with red staves, seven or eight feet long, varnished and adorned with gilt foliages. Next to these are a hundred soldiers carrying halberts, the iron part of which terminates in a crescent. Then follow an hundred men with red maces ornamented with flowers, and gilt at the end. Then advance four hundred very fine lanterns; four hundred flambeaux, consisting of wood which burns a long time, and yields a great light; two hundred men with spears, some adorned with tufts of silk of various colours, others with the tails of foxes, leopards, and other animals; twenty-four banners, on which are painted the signs of the zodiac, which the Chinese divide into twelve parts; fifty-six other banners, whereon are represented the fifty-six constellations, to which the Chinese reduce all the stars; two hundred fans, on which are painted various figures of dragons, birds, and other animals; these are supported by long gilt sticks: twenty-four umbrellas richly adorned, and a beaufet supported by the officers of the kitchen, and furnished with gold utensils, such as ewers, basons, &c. Then appears the emperor on horseback, richly dressed, and on each side is held a magnificent umbrella, large enough to shade both him and his horse: he is surrounded with ten led horses; these are always white, with the saddles and bridles enriched with gold and

jewels; and also by a hundred spearmen, and pages of the bed-chamber.

After them the princes of the blood, the reguloes, the chief mandarines, and the lords of the court, appear in the same order, and in their proper habits, together with five hundred young gentlemen belonging to the palace, richly clad, followed by a thousand footmen in red gowns bordered with flowers, and stars of gold and silver; immediately after thirty-six men carry an open chair, followed by another that is much larger and close, supported by a hundred and twenty chairmen; then appear four large waggons, two of which are drawn by elephants, and two by horses covered with embroidered housings: every chariot and chair is followed by a company of fifty men to guard it. This procession is closed by two thousand mandarines of letters, and two thousand mandarines of arms, or officers of war, richly dressed in their proper habits. The same order is always invariably observed.

Nobility.—None but those who belong to the reigning family have any title of distinction; these possess the rank of princes, in whose favour five honorary degrees of nobility are established, much like those of dukes, marquisses, earls, viscounts, and barons, in Europe. These titles are granted to the children of the emperor, and those to whom he gives his daughters in marriage, who have revenues assigned them equal to their dignity, but not the least power. When the founder of the present Tartarian family was settled on the throne, he conferred on his brothers, who were numerous, and had contributed by their valour to the conquest of many countries, several titles of honour, to which the Europeans have given the appellation of reguloes, or princes of the first, second, and third rank, and it was then determined, that from among the children of every regulo, one should be chosen to succeed his father in the same dignity.

But the family esteemed the most noble in China, is that of the celebrated Confucius, of whom we shall give some account in treating of the religion of the Chi-

nese. The honours conferred on that great man have been continued in a direct line for more than two thousand years in the person and descendants of one of his nephews, who is called, "The nephew of the Great or Wise Man."

The mandarines, who are the governors of provinces and cities, and, according to their different ranks, enjoy all the posts under the government, are chosen for their proficiency in learning. But the children even of those who enjoy the highest offices under the emperor, are in danger of sinking to the rank of the vulgar, and are often obliged to follow the meanest professions. The son of a mandarine may succeed to his father's wealth, but not to his dignity or reputation: he must rise by the same steps as those by which his father rose; and by applying himself to study, be, like him, advanced on account of his learning.

There are three ways of punishing with death in China, of which strangling is looked upon as most honorable: this is frequently done by a bow-string. In some places they put a cord of seven or eight feet long, with a running knot round the criminal's neck. Two servants belonging to the tribunal draw it hard at each end, then loose it a moment, and drawing it again the second time, dispatch the criminal.

Another kind of punishment is extremely cruel; this is inflicted on rebels and traitors, on a son who strikes his father, and on merciless robbers. It is called "cutting in ten thousand pieces." The executioner fastens the criminal to a post, then flaying the skin off his head, pulls it over his eyes, and afterwards mangles him by cutting pieces from all parts of his body; and when he is weary of this barbarous exercise, he delivers him to the cruelty of the populace.

The other punishment is beheading; which is inflicted for crimes of great enormity, as murder, and is looked upon as very shameful, because the head, which is the principal part of man, is seperated from the body; and because in dying they do not preserve the human form as entire as it was when they received it from their

parents. The party condemned to suffer this punishment, is not, on the day of execution, exposed on a scaffold, but being made to kneel in some public place, with his hands tied behind him, a person holds him so fast that he cannot move, while the executioner coming behind, takes off his head at one stroke, and at the same time lays him on his back with such dexterity, that not a drop of blood falls on his clothes, which on that occasion are generally better than ordinary: for his relations and friends, though ashamed to own him in those unhappy circumstances, usually send him new clothes, and cause provisions and drink to be offered him by the way.

The executioner is commonly a soldier; and his office is so far from being scandalous, that at Pekin he accompanies the criminal girt with a sash of yellow silk, and his cutlass is wrapped in silk of the same colour, to shew that he is vested with the emperor's authority.

Those who suffer death by decapitation are also sentenced to be deprived of common burial, which in China is considered as dreadfully infamous; the executioner therefore, after having stripped the body, throws it into the next ditch.

If the criminal happens to have wealthy relations who regard him, they frequently buy the body at a great price from the executioner, and sew on the head again with abundance of lamentations.

Religion.—The religion of China is two-fold. One as ancient as the empire itself, and probably introduced by its founders: the other of much later date, and derived from India, not long after the birth of Christ. The latter has idols, temples, sacrifices, priests, monks, festivals, and many external rites and ceremonies; the former is exempt from all these, and is, perhaps, as artless and simple as any religion that was ever taught in the world. It prescribes reverence to an invisible Being, residing in the visible heaven, and distributing thence happiness and misery among mankind; but it enjoins no particular worship to him: so that temples, priests, assemblies, sacrifices, and rites, are things entirely for-

eign to it. In this religion there is no term for God, and in an imperial edict, published in the year 1710, it is said, "It is not to the visible and material heaven that we offer our adoration, but to the Lord of heaven."—The emperor alone, at certain times, offers a sacrifice to this powerful Being, in the name of his people. The emperor, who is sole pontiff, is likewise the only judge in religious matters.

The latter religion, of that idolatry which was introduced by *Fo*, or *Foe*, a celebrated Indian impostor, has many adherents among the lower ranks of people, but is only tolerated in the state. The wise men, and those of distinction, profess the old morality, which is the national religion, protected by the laws of the empire, and preached by the emperor himself.

This ancient religion maintained, that, as well for the preservation of order as to maintain purity of manners, those who command should imitate the conduct of Tien, in treating their inferiors as their children; and those who obey ought to consider their superiors as their fathers.

The religion of China is comprehended in some ancient and valuable books, which they call "the Five Volumes;" it appears from one of these ancient books, that this Tien, the object of public worship, is the principal of all things, the father of the people, independent, almighty, omniscient; to whom the secrets of the heart are fully known, and who watches over the conduct of the universe.

Fohi, who was one of the heads of the colony which came to settle in this part of the east, and is acknowledged to be the founder of the Chinese monarchy, gave public marks of his profound veneration for the Supreme Being. Chinnong, Fohi's successor, added to these sacrifices two offerings at the equinoxes.

His successors, in general, followed his example; and it is asserted by the Chinese writers, that for the space of two thousand years the nation acknowledged, reverenced, and honoured with sacrifices the Supreme Being and Sovereign Lord of the universe.

At length the troubles which arose in the empire, the civil wars which distracted it, and the corruption of manners which became almost universal, had very nearly suppressed the ancient doctrine, when Confucius arose and revived it.

This great philosopher made a collection of the most excellent maxims of the ancients, which he adhered to himself, and taught to the people. He preached up a severe morality, and endeavoured to prevail upon men to contemn riches and wordly pleasures, and to esteem temperance, justice, and other virtues: he strove to inspire them with such magnanimity as to be proof against the frowns of princes, and with a sincerity incapable of the least disguise. The thing most to be admired is, that he preached more by his example than by his words, whence he reaped considerable fruits from his labours; kings were governed by his counsels, and the people reverenced him as a saint. Yet he frequently met with reverses of fortune, which obliged him to travel from province to province, and he was often reduced to such extremities, as to be in danger of perishing by hunger.

He sent six hundred of his disciples into different places of the empire to reform the manners of the people, and used frequently to say, "It is in the West where the true saint is found." This sentence was so imprinted in the minds of the learned, that sixty-four years after the birth of Christ, the emperor Ming-ti sent ambassadors into the West, with strict orders to continue their journey till they should meet this saint. Other authors assert, that he was induced to send these ambassadors, from a dream which reminded him of this sentence of Confucius.

This philosopher seems to have carried the religion of nature as far as unassisted reason could possibly reach. After his death he was revered by the greatest part of the nation as an eminent saint, as a messenger inspired and sent by heaven to instruct mankind, and almost as a god; but interpreters soon arose, who explained away the simplicity and purity of his doctrine, and, by intro-

ducing idle distinctions and superstitious observances, by perverting and wresting his meaning as well as by giving false interpretations of the ancient books, they destroyed the worship due to the Supreme Being, and formed a system of religion and philosophy equally impious and absurd. This is now the religion of the learned, who, while they pay homage to the memory of Confucius, are far from following his precepts or imitating the innocence and sanctity of his life. Yet though the purity of doctrine is not retained, the memory of their great teacher is still held in the highest reverence by the Chinese, and the emperors have even ordered that the literati should annually celebrate a festival to his honour.

The Chinese in their persons are far from being such grotesque figures as they represent themselves in their paintings; and we may form a pretty distinct idea of them in general, by considering what they esteem beauty. This they imagine consists in having a large forehead, small eyes, a short nose, a broad face, a mouth of a moderate size, large ears, and black hair; together with a certain symmetry and proportion between all the parts. As their garments are wide, and do not fit so close to the body as those of the Europeans, they have formed no idea of the beauty resulting from a genteel and easy shape. On the contrary, they esteem a man well made when he is fat, bulky, and handsomely fills his chair. Their complexion, in the southern parts of China, where the weather is excessively hot, is of an olive colour; but, in the northern provinces, they are naturally as fair as the Europeans, and, in common, their faces are not disagreeable: the men of learning, and young people, particularly, not being exposed to the sun, have a fine skin and a beautiful complexion.—Such as are professedly men of letters, especially if they are well descended, affect to let the nails of their fingers grow an inch long or more, from the vanity of shewing that they are not employed in manual labour; a custom which prevails in Otaheite, among the *eries*, or men of rank.

As for the women, they are commonly of the middle size; their noses are short, their eyes little, their mouths well made, and with rosy lips; their ears are long, their hair black, and their complexion florid; their features are regular, and their countenances full of vivacity.—The smallness of their feet is, in the opinion of the Chinese, none of the least charms of that sex: therefore, when a female infant is born, the nurses are very careful in binding her feet extremely hard, to prevent their growing; and they are ever after subjected to this constraint; but whatever pain a child suffers from this violence offered to nature, it appears that its health is not materially affected by it; and such is the force of custom, that the Chinese women, when adult, are so far from complaining of it, that they pride themselves in this whimsical perversion of nature, and always affect to shew their feet as they walk, or rather hobble along with tottering and unsteady steps.

The men shave their heads, leaving only one lock of hair growing on the crown. Osbeck says, "If a Chinese is asked what sum of money would induce him to part with his tuft of hair? he replies by asking the inquirer, what he would take for his head?"

It is generally agreed that the silk-worm was first bred, and its curious web first manufactured, in China, and for a great many centuries formed a most lucrative branch of trade; no other part of the world having any knowledge of that insect, or of its wonderful properties. The ancients in all ages were supplied with that costly article of luxury, silk, from India, whither it was brought from China. It was about the middle of the sixth century, in the reign of Justinian, that two Persian monks, who had been employed as missionaries in some of the Christian churches, which were established, as we are informed, by Cosmas, in different parts of India, had penetrated into the country of the Seres, or China. There they observed the labours of the silk-worm, and became acquainted with the whole progress of working up its productions in such a variety of elegant fabrics. The prospect of gain, or perhaps an indignant zeal,

excited by seeing this lucrative branch of commerce engrossed by unbelievers, prompted them to repair to Constantinople; there they explained to the emperor the origin of silk, as well as the various modes of preparing and manufacturing it: mysteries until then unknown, or very imperfectly understood in Europe. Encouraged by his liberal promises, they undertook to bring to the capital a sufficient number of those wonderful insects, to whose labour man is so much indebted. This they accomplished by conveying the eggs of the silk-worm in a hollow cane; which were hatched by the heat of a dung-hill; the insects, so procured, were fed with the leaves of the wild mulberry-tree; and they multiplied and worked in the same manner as in those climates where they first became objects of human attention and culture. Vast numbers of these insects were soon reared in different parts of Greece, particularly in the Peloponesus. Sicily afterwards undertook to breed silk-worms with equal success, and was imitated, from time to time, by several towns in Italy. In all these places extensive manufactures were established, and carried on with silk raised in the country. The demand for silk from the East diminished of course. The subjects of the Greek emperors were no longer obliged to have recourse to the Persians for a supply of it, and a considerable change took place in the nature of the commercial intercourse between Europe and India.—*Dr. Robertson's Historical Disquisition concerning ancient India*, page 88.

It was ten centuries after the Chinese had lost their monopoly of silk, that tea became adopted into general use in European countries. The demand for this favourite leaf has continually increased since its first introduction, which is little more than a century ago. In the year 1785, when the British ministry introduced regulations respecting the duties on this important article, it was stated in the house of commons, that the whole quantity of tea imported into Europe from China, was about nineteen millions of pounds weight, of which it was conjectured that twelve millions were consumed in Great-Britain and its dependencies.—*Payne.*

Two splendid embassies from England and Holland have been undertaken within these few years past; that of lord Macartney, in 1793, and that of Mr. Titsing, in 1795. A full account of the former was presented to the public by sir George Staunton, and of the latter by N. Van Braam, both of them acting secretaries to their respective embassies. To these works we must necessarily refer the inquisitive reader for full and accurate accounts of the present condition of this populous, extensive, and flourishing empire.

CHAPTER XXIII.

PRUSSIA.

Original Inhabitants.—Name.—Subdued by the Teutonic Knights.—Albert the first Duke.—Erected into a Kingdom.

Prussia, which has lately made so great a figure in the affairs of Europe, is one of the most recent and limited monarchies on the continent. It was originally inhabited by a powerful race of people, called the Venedi, who extended themselves all along the south side of the Baltic. On the Venedi removing to the more western provinces, the Borussi, who had migrated from the foot of the Riphæn mountains, possessed themselves of this country, which they called Borussia, now corrupted to Prussia.

It was divided into twelve provinces by Venedus, one of the Borussian princes, who is recorded to have given them to his twelve sons.

They made a noble stand against the kings of Poland, a brother of one of whom (Boleslaus IV.) was defeated and slain by them in battle, A. D. 1166. This bold and warlike nation continued independent, and pagans, till conquered by the knights of the Teutonic order, A. D. 1227, who, returning to Europe after the expulsion

of the Christians from the Holy Land by Saladin, obtained grants of settlements in Italy, Germany, Hungary, &c.

A long series of wars ensued, in which the original inhabitants of Prussia were almost extirpated by these religious and military knights. The remainder, oppressed beyond all human tolerance by their conquerors, at last revolted, and implored the aid of Casimir IV. king of Poland, A. D. 1454, who invaded Prussia; and, after a bloody war of twelve years duration, a peace was concluded, in which it was agreed that the part called Polish Prussia should continue under the protection of Poland, and that the Teutonic knights should possess the other parts, but to acknowledge themselves vassals to the sovereign of Poland. The knights, disdaining the vassalage, made frequent attempts to shake it off, till at last Albert, margrave of Brandenburgh, grand-master of the order, embracing the doctrines of Luther, and willing to aggrandise himself at the expence of the knights, agreed to share Prussia with his uncle, Sigismund I. king of Poland, on condition of paying homage for the protection of that crown. The proposal was accepted. Albert took the title of Duke, A. D. 1525, in his new territory; hence the present kingdom is called Ducal Prussia, and that part in possession of Poland, and on the western side of the Vistula, Regal Prussia.* Thus ended the sovereignty of the Teutonic order in Prussia, after it had subsisted three centuries.

Brandenburg remained long in subjection to Poland; and the investiture of Prussia was granted by the Polish kings to each succeeding margrave.

Frederic-William, elector of Brandenburg, surnamed the Great, had Ducal Prussia confirmed to him and his heirs, being freed from vassalage (A. D. 1657) by Casimir, king of Poland; and he and his descendants were

---

* Mem. de Brandenburg, tom. i.

declared independent and sovereign lords of this part of Prussia.

With these titles, and as grand-masters of the Teutonics, they continued till A. D. 1701, when

Frederic, son of Frederic-William the Great, raised the duchy of Prussia to a kingdom, and on Jan. 18, 1701, in a solemn assembly of the states of the empire, placed the crown, with his own hands, upon his head and that of his consort; soon after which he was acknowledged as king of Prussia by all the other Christian powers. In memory of this event, he instituted the order of the Black Eagle.

His son, Frederic-William, succeeded to the crown A. D. 1713;—a wise and political prince, who, by rigid economy, amassed a prodigious treasure, though he maintained for his own security an army of 60,000 men, which he prudently left his son to employ. A number of useful and magnificent foundations rendered his reign glorious.—"If we may be said to owe the shade of the "oak," observes the royal historian, "to the acorn "from which it sprung; in like manner we may discern, in the sagacious conduct of Frederic-William, "the source of the future greatness of his successor."*

This prince died A. D. 1740, when Frederic III. ascended the throne, who will justly be celebrated by future historians, as one of the first military, political, and literary characters that ever graced a throne. He dying in 1786, was succeeded by his son.

Frederic IV. The conduct of this monarch convinced Europe that the aggrandisement of his kingdom was of more importance, in his estimation, than to keep his word, or maintain the rights of those with whom he was in alliance. He helped to plunder Poland, which he was bound to protect; and broke his treaty with England and Germany against France, as soon as he found

* Mem. de Brandenburgh, tom. ii.

THE NEW YORK
PUBLIC LIBRARY
ASTOR, LENOX
TILDEN FOUNDATIONS

The
FEMALE CAPTIVE

it convenient. He, November 16, 1797, was succeeded by his son

Frederick V. the present emperor, whose temporising policy had nearly lost him his kingdom; being defeated at the decisive battle of Jena, by the emperor of the French, who shortly after took Berlin, his capital.—[*See more of Prussia in the Appendix.*]

RELIGION.—The Prussians are in general Lutherans; but as a great number of the colonists are Calvinists, they have also their churches, not only in the cities and towns, but in some villages they have a particular church appropriate to their use; and in some places they perform divine service in the Lutheran churches. The Roman catholics have a few churches in this kingdom.

CHAPTER XXIV.

INTRODUCTION TO FRANCE.

This country, more than any which has yet come under our notice, has a particular claim to attention. In the course of the last eighteen years, it has undergone more astonishing revolutions than any other on the face of the globe. Situated in the heart of Europe, boasting a population of between thirty and forty millions, independent of the petty sovereignties which it has either created or has brought within its influence; flushed with conquest, and commanded by an ambitious chief, who places at an immense distance perhaps all the heroes of ancient and modern history, and aspires (as is generally believed) to universal domination. We have devoted to this article as great a proportion of our work as the importance of the subject and our circumscribed limits would allow us.

FRANCE.

Under the Franks, or Merovingian Race.—Carlovingian Race.—Charlemagne.—Invasion of the Normans.—Capetian Race.—Conquest of France by the English.

This extensive country was, in the early ages, known under the name of Gaul, and received a colony of Belgæ from Germany about 200 years before Christ. It was afterwards shared by the Romans, Visigoths, and the Burgundians, when Clovis, king of the Franks, a tribe of Germans who inhabited the other side of the Rhine, defeated the Roman general, Syagrius, and by obtaining a complete victory over the Visigoths, in which their king Alaric was slain, fully established the French monarchy in Gaul.

He was converted by his queen Clotilda, and the Franks under his reign embraced Christianity.

On the death of Clovis, A. D. 511, his kingdom was divided among his sons, and on that account involved in civil wars.

A series of weak sovereigns succeeded, under whom the *maires du palais*, the mayors of the palace, a kind of viceroys, amid the disorders of civil war and anarchy, extended their authority over both king and nobles, and, possessed of the power of sovereigns, assumed at length the title.

Pepin le Bref was the first *maire du palais* who made his way to the throne, and assumed the sovereignty in name as well as in reality, excluding for ever the descendants of Clovis, or the Merovingian race,* from the crown of France, after they had possessed it 270 years.

---

* So called, from Merovæus, grandfather of Clovis.

Pepin, the founder of the Carlovingian race of kings, was succeeded by his two sons, Charles surnamed Charlemagne, and Carloman. On the death of his brother, A. D. 771, Charles became sole monarch of France, and, during a reign of forty-five years, subdued to his dominion the greatest part of Europe. The beautiful domestic character, the heroic enterprises and exploits, the victories and conquests of this prince, have been greatly celebated in history; but the most important transactions of his reign are those which regard Italy.

He subdued all Lombardy, entered Rome in triumph, and was crowned emperor of the Romans on Christmas-eve, A. D. 800.

Charlemagne died in the 72d year of his age, A. D. 814.

Lewis (le Debonair) was his only lawful son who survived him; on whose death a partition of this extensive empire took place, between his three sons. Charles surnamed the Bald, obtained the kingdom of France; Germany, finally separated from the empire of the Franks, was the share of another son, Lewis of Bavaria; and Italy fell to Lotharius, with the title of emperor.

The concluding period of the history of the degenerate posterity of Charlemagne, is uninteresting and obscure. The most memorable event that has been recorded is the incursions of the Normans, or rather the Norwegians.—At the end of the eighth century, these fierce people, who collectively bore the name of Normans, migrating from Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, ventured in light barks, hollowed out of large trunks of trees, to brave the ocean.—They penetrated into England, Scotland, the Orkney and Shetland Islands, the Western Isles, and even to Ireland; all which places they made the subjects of their depredations, marking their rout by desolation and slaughter.—The booty and wealth which those ravagers carried home, excited others among them to advance along the coast of Britain to France, where they first landed in 820. Under one of their most illustrious leaders, Rollo, they sailed up

the Seine; and, taking the city of Rouen, soon became so formidable, that Charles the Simple offered Rollo his daughter in marriage, and ceded to him Normandy, Bretagne, and Neustria.

Rollo had a son called William, who succeeded him in the ducal throne of Normandy, and from whom the Norman kings of England descended.

Hugh Capet, the most powerful nobleman in France, and the founder of the third race of French kings, ascended the throne in the conclusion of the 10th century. The weakness and domestic misery of the kingdom, during this and several succeeding reigns, were too shocking to be described.

In the reign of Philip I. which began A. D. 1060, the phrenzy of crusading broke out.—An enthusiastic priest, known by the name of *Peter the Hermit*, having in his pilgrimage to Jerusalem been eye-witness to the injuries and oppressions under which the Christians in the east, as well as the pilgrims, groaned; his own heated imagination, the persuasion of the patriarch of Jerusalem, and the approbation of pope Urban, animated him to run from province to province, through all the countries of Europe, with a crucifix in his hands, and tears in his eyes, stirring up the superstitious people to wreak their vengeance on the enemies of Christianity, and to rescue the Holy Land from the possession of the Infidels. Every individual, even to the children, was filled with holy rage, and people of all ranks flew to arms with the utmost ardor. Thousands of them perished miserable; and, having undergone many hardships, the Christians got possession of a wild waste country, without either cultivation or inhabitants, in which, however, lay Jerusalem, Bethlehem, Nazareth, and many other places of sacred fame.

The crusades chose Godfrey of Bouillon king of Jerusalem, and settled him in their new conquests.

Philip was succeeded in the year 1108 by his son Lewis, who is generally called by the old historians Lewis the Gross, from his great size, and who was the sixth Lewis that sat on the throne of France. Soon

after his coronation, he engaged in a war against Henry I. of England, a powerful vassal, whom it was his interest to humble. The war was carried on with a variety of fortunes during the greater part of this reign, but without producing any remarkable event. The history of this period affords little instruction or entertainment.

Philip II. the successor of Lewis, and Richard I. of England, undertook a joint expedition to the Holy Land. The king of France returned to Europe in disgust; and the king of England, being abandoned by his associates, was obliged to relinquish his enterprise, after he had defeated the infidel emperor, Saladin, within sight of Jerusalem; and, on his return, was made prisoner by the duke of Austria, and confined in a dungeon in Germany, from whence he purchased his release by a very large ransom.

The short reign of Lewis VIII. who succeeded his father Philip in the year 1226, was chiefly spent in crusades against the Albigenses, in the prosecution of which he died.

He was succeeded by his son Lewis IX. commonly called St. Lewis, who engaged in a new crusade, in which himself, with his nobility, were taken prisoners, and ransomed at an immense expence. He afterwards led a new army against the infidels of Africa, where he was seized with an epidemic distemper, and died. His son and successor, Philip III. kept the field against the Moors, and saved the remains of the French army, which procured him the name of the Hardy.

The reign of Philip IV. surnamed the Fair, the son and successor of Philip the Hardy, is distinguished by the institution of the supreme tribunals, called parliaments, and the suppression and extirpation of the Knights Templars, who were originally an order of monks that settled near the temple of Jerusalem when it was first taken by the champions of the cross. In a short time they acquired, from the piety of the faithful, ample possessions in every Christian country, but more especially in France. The great riches of those knights had relaxed the severity of their discipline. Being all

men of birth, they at last scorned the ignoble occupations of a monastic life, and passed their time wholly in the fashionable amusements of hunting, gallantry, and the pleasures of the table.

By these means the Templars lost that popularity which first raised them to honor and distinction; and Philip, in concert with Pope Clement V. judged them unprofitable to the church, and dangerous to the state.

The race of Capetine kings ended with Charles IV. surnamed the Fair, who left only one daughter. The states of the kingdom by a solemn decree declared all females incapable of succeeding to the crown; and Philip de Valois, the grandson of a brother of Philip IV. the next male heir, in consequence of that decree, was unanimously raised to the throne A. D. 1328.

Edward III. of England, claimed the French crown, as grandson of a daughter of Philip. Hostilties commenced. The English triumphed over the French at Cressy, A. D. 1346, and after a long siege took Calais; but in 1360, a peace was made, by which the king of France granted Guienne, Poictou, Santoigne, and several other territories in the neighbourhood of Calais, to Edward, in compensation for Normandy, which he relinquished. About the end or the fourteenth century, the French recovered all that the English possessed in France, except Calais.

In the beginning of the fifteenth century, a civil war raged with great violence between the Burgundians and Armagnes. Henry V. king of England, resolving to take advantage of those disorders, invaded France. Immediately on his landing, A. D. 1415, he invested Harfleur, which was taken by storm, after a six weeks siege, and the garrison put to the sword. The famous battle of Agincourt followed, in which Henry obtained a glorious victory. The loss of the French was incredible. Seven princes were slain. Five princes were taken prisoners, together with fourteen thousand persons of different ranks; and about ten thousand Frenchmen were left dead on the field of battle.

Henry returned to England, but landed about two years after in Normandy; and in 1420 concluded a treaty, by which the succession to the throne of France was secured to the king of England; and in consequence of this treaty, his son, Henry VI. was crowned king of France at Paris.

Charles VII. who had succeeded his father, Charles VI. in the year 1422, by slow degrees recovered possession of his kingdom. Joan of Arc, a pretended prophetess, raised the siege of Orleans, defeated the English, but was taken prisoner, and burnt for sorcery. Charles, by a vigorous perseverance, expelled the English from France. This monarch rendered his kingdom flourishing within itself, and formidable to its neighbours.

Lewis XI. an insidious, artful, and tyrannical monarch, seized on Burgundy, A. D. 1477, and made that duchy an appendix of the crown of France.

His successor, Charles VIII. conquered the kingdom of Naples, but was afterwards driven out of Italy, and stripped of all his conquests. He was the last prince of the first line of the house of Valois. On his death, in the year 1498, the duke of Orleans ascended the throne, under the title of Lewis XII. whose humanity, generosity, and indulgence to his subjects, obtained him the appellation of *Father of the People.*

Francis I. his son-in-law, was a prince of the greatest abilities, but with many defects. He undertook the conquest of Naples; and for that purpose led a strong army into Italy, and besieged Pavia, where his army was routed, and himself taken prisoner by the imperialists, Feb. 24, 1525. After two years captivity, he obtained his enlargement on the most rigorous conditions.

The severity of his successor, Henry II. drove the protestants into rebellion. The death of Henry II. and the accession of Francis II. at that time only thirteen years of age, was the æra of those civil commotions which harassed France for thirty years. The duke of Guise and his brother, inveterate enemies to the protestant

religion, assumed the direction of public affairs. By their instigation, the king resolved on the extirpation of heretics. Animated with zeal, and inflamed with resentment, the protestants, or Hugonots, as they were stiled by way of reproach, resolved, by some bold action, to anticipate the schemes of their enemies. Hence the famous conspiracy of Amboise, where they intended to seize the king, and wrest the government out of the hands of the Guises, if not to dispatch them. Their design was discovered and disappointed. Soon after the young king was suddenly carried off, in the seventeenth year of his age.

Charles IX. was only ten years of age at his accession. His mother, Catherine of Medicis, was appointed his guardian, and invested with the administration of the realm. This prince's minority and reign exhibit a series of treacheries, commotions, and assassinations. Five civil wars rent the kingdom to pieces, and France became a scene of tumult and bloodshed.

The massacre of Paris commenced on the eve of St. Bartholomew, August 24, 1572, to which there is nothing parallel in the history of mankind, either from the dissimulation that led to it, or the deliberate cruelty and barbarity with which it was perpetrated. Seventy thousand protestants were murdered.*

Though the author of so many atrocious crimes, Charles IX. was only twenty-four years old, when he was removed by a violent disorder, and was succeeded in the throne of France by his brother, the duke of Anjou, under the title of Henry III.

This was a weak and debauched prince. He devoted himself to his pleasures, and entrusted the entire direction of public affairs to his mother. The disturbance between protestants and catholics still continued. Henry being suspected of favouring the former, was assassinated by a Dominican monk, August 1, A. D. 1589; and in him the line of Valois finished, which had governed France 161 years.

* See Memoirs of the Duke de Sully.

On the death of Henry III. the crown devolved to the house of Bourbon, in the person of Henry IV. king of Navarre, justly styled the Great. He was the best and most amiable of princes. Being a protestant, he was opposed in his pretensions to the crown by the catholic league. War was declared, in which Henry was successful, and triumphed over his enemies; and in order to please the majority of his subjects, he embraced the catholic religion—a step which the security of his crown, and the happiness of his people, made necessary. Educated a protestant, he continued, after he became a catholic, to be the patron of the reformed. Generous and free in his own principles, he endeavoured to promote a spirit of love and charity among his subjects, to allay all bitterness and animosities, and to put an end to all persecution. In the year 1598, he passed the famous edict of Nantz; which not only secured to the protestants the free exercise of their religion, but a share in the administration of justice, and the privilege of being admitted to all employments of trust, profit and honour. Henry's grand schemes, in the conclusion of his reign, were to humble the House of Austria; and to erect a balance of power; which, by dividing Europe into fifteen associated states, modelled as a great republic, or Christian commonwealth, to expel the Turks, would establish perpetual peace. When all was in readiness to carry into execution these chimerical projects, an end was put to them by the hand of a desperate fanatic, named Ravilliac, who stabbed the king to the heart in his coach, in the streets of Paris, A. D. 1610. Thus perished Henry IV. the ablest and best prince that ever sat upon the throne of France.

Under the minority of Lewis XIII. who succeeded his father at the age of nine years, and the weak regency of his mother Mary de Medicis, France returned to that state of disorder and wretchedness, out of which it had been raised by the mild and equitable but vigorous government of Henry the Great.* Excited by his min-

* Modern Europe.

ister, the famous cardinal Richlieu, who was an enthusiast in popery, the king besieged the protestants in the town of Roehelle, which was at last reduced by famine; but by the loss of Rochelle, and other fortified places, which had been given the Hugonots for their security, their strength was much impaired. This whole reign was very turbulent, chiefly from the ambitious views of Richlieu, who had the sole direction of public affairs.—He introduced absolute government into France, and amazingly increased its power. Lewis XIII. died A. D. 1643.

Lewis XIV. surnamed the Great, succeeded his father at the age of five years, under the regency of his mother, Ann of Austria, who chose cardinal Mazarine to be her minister. This was a long and brilliant reign. To divert or dissipate the factions which had involved the kingdom in civil and domestic quarrels, war was declared against Spain. The celebrated duke d'Enghien was made general of the French armies, and so signal was the success of this young hero (afterwards honoured with the title of the Great Condé) that his victories brought about the memorable peace of Westphalia, signed at Munster, October 24, in the year 1648, between France, the emperor Ferdinand III. and Christina queen of Sweden. Though this treaty established a calm in part of Europe, France was torn by civil dissentions. The cardinal Mazarine having been declared by the parliament "A disturber of the public peace, and an enemy to the kingdom," was dismissed by the king, on his coming to age, A. D. 1654; but was soon after recalled and reinstated in the administration. The war was carried on with vigour against Spain, till the treaty of the Pyrenees, A. D. 1659, when peace was procured to both the exhausted monarchies by the marriage of the French king with the infanta Maria Theresa. The death of Mazarine, in little more than a year after, left the reins of government to Lewis. The young sovereign now became the idol of France, and the admiration of Europe. His restless ambition, and insatiable thirst of glory, began to disturb the peace of the conti-

nent. He invaded the Spanish Netherlands, which he reduced, and immediately afterwards made himself master of Franche-Comté. A progress so rapid, filled Europe with terror and consternation; and a triple alliance was formed, A. D. 1668, by England, Holland, and Sweden, to check his arms. This measure was effectual; the victorious Lewis thought it necessary to limit his ambition for the present; and a treaty of peace was signed at Aix-la-Chapelle the same year.

France increased in glory and national strength. Lewis, still ambitiously determining on the conquest of Holland, entered that country in the beginning of the year 1672, and made himself master of no less than forty strong towns in about two months. The distress and consternation of the Dutch cannot be described.—As the last resource, the sluices were opened by the command of the magistrates of Amsterdam, and the neighbouring country was laid under water, without regard to the fertile fields, the numerous villas, and flourishing villages, which were overwhelmed by the inundation! The war was continued to the peace of Nimeguen A. D. 1679.

His unbounded ambition made him odious, or formidable, to every prince in Europe. The league of Augsburg, in which the continental powers joined their forces for restraining this ambitious monarch, was formed in 1689.—A long and bloody war ensued.—To repel this storm, Lewis assembled two armies in Flanders; he opposed a third to the Spaniards in Catalonia; and, in order to form a barrier on the side of Germany, he laid waste the Palatinate with fire and sword. This barbarous policy can never be held in too much detestation. Men, women, and children, were driven, in a severe season (February 1689) out of their habitations, to wander about in the fields, and to perish of hunger and cold; while they beheld their houses reduced to ashes, their goods seized, and their possessions pillaged by the rapacious soldiers!

The Dutch were defeated with great slaughter by mareschal Luxemburg. Every where victorious, the

glory and greatness of Lewis were now at their height. But the united forces of England and Austria, under the command of Marlborough and prince Eugene, at last prevailed, and the subsequent part of his reign exhibits a mortifying reverse of fortune. France derived no solid advantage from her successes. Her finances were exhausted; and tranquility was restored to Europe by the peace of Ryswick A. D. 1697. From the year 1702, when Lewis endeavored to establish the Pretender's title to the crown of England, to 1711, his reign was a continued series of defeats and calamities. The peace of Utrecht, the terms of which were glorious for England, took place A. D. 1713. He died Sept. 1, 1715.

Discord seemed to have left the earth with the restless spirit of Lewis XIV. His great grandson ascended the throne at the age of five years, under the title of Lewis XV. The general tranquility of Europe met with little interruption from the peace of Utrecht till the year 1734. At that period a flame broke out, in consequence of the death of Augustus II. king of Poland, and soon spread itself through every part of Europe. The French king supported the pretensions of Stanislaus, whose daughter he had married, in opposition to the elector of Saxony, whose cause was supported by the Russians and Austrians. After a war of two years, a treaty was concluded, by which it was agreed that Stanislaus should renounce his claim to the throne of Poland, and should be put in possession of Lorraine and Bar.—The death of the emperor, Charles VI. (1740) involved France in another war, from a desire of breaking the power of the House of Austria, and exalting that of Bourbon on its ruins, by dismembering the dominions of Maria Theresa, and placing on the imperial throne Charles Albert, elector of Bavaria, stipendiary of his most Christian majesty.

The cause of the archduchess, Maria Theresa, was warmly espoused by the king and people of Great Britain, who voted her liberal supplies; and 16,000 British troops were sent over to her assistance.

At the battle of Dettingen, June 27, 1743, the English were victorious. In the year 1744, Lewis concerted an invasion of England, under the young Pretender. May 11, 1745, the king and dauphin had their vanity highly gratified by their troops gaining the battle of Fontenoy. An end was put to the progress of this war by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, April 30, 1748, the basis of which was, a restitution of all the places taken on both sides.

In the year 1756, hostilities were again renewed, and the storm raged with violence over the greater part of Europe. Germany, France, Russia, and Sweden, were combined against Prussia and Great Britain. In 1757, Jan. 6, Damien, a native of Arras, attempted to kill the king. The death this poor fanatical wretch suffered is shocking to humanity; and, although the act of a people who pride themselves in civility and refinement, might fill the hearts of savages with horror. He was conducted to the common place of execution, amidst a vast concourse of the populace; stripped naked, and fastened to the scaffold by iron gyres. One of his hands was then burnt in liquid flaming sulphur. His thighs, legs, and arms, were torn with red hot pincers. Boiling oil, melted lead, rosin, and sulphur, were poured into the wounds: and, to complete the awful catastrophe, tight ligatures being tied round his limbs, he was torn to pieces by young and vigorous horses!

After a very active, splendid, and universal war, perhaps the most bloody between disciplined armies, peace was concluded at Paris on the 10th of February 1763, as humiliating to France as it was honourable to England.

Lewis XV. died May 10, 1774, and was succeeded by his grandson Lewis XVI. The events subsequent to this period have been productive of a revolution, which has shaken all Europe to its foundation: we will therefore reserve them for the matter of another Chapter.

CHAPTER XXV.

Assembly of the Notables.—Junction of the Citizens and Soldiers.—Destruction of the Bastile.—Death of the King and Queen.—War with England.—Death of the Dauphin.—Descent of the French upon Egypt.—The English take the French fleet.—Russia joins the English and Austrians.—Various successes in Italy.

From the increase of pecuniary embarrassment, and a dissatisfaction at the system of taxation, particularly a declaration of a new stamp-duty, the parliament of Paris began seriously to remonstrate with the king in the year 1787. On the 22d of February, 1788, the notables were assembled by Lewis, who informed them of his intention to ameliorate the burden of revenue by a more equal taxation; but owing to the party spirit of the friends of M. Necker and M. de Calonne, two contending ministers, the king and the assembly did not agree in their plans of finance. From this æra may be dated the commencement of the French revolution.

In the month of July, 1791, the Parisians assembled in large bodies, and enrolled themselves as a regular militia for the protection of their private properties and the capital at large. Sixty thousand citizens were soon in motion; and they were as soon spontaneously joined by the French guards. The armourers shops were pillaged of their weapons. The guards trained the citizens to arms; and they took on themselves, when thus consolidated, the name of 'National Guard.'* On the 14th of the month, they entered the hospital of invalids, and seized on 30,000 muskets, and 20 pieces of cannon; and shortly after they besieged and gained possession of the prison and fortress of the Bastile.

* La Garde Nationale.

During the remainder of this year, and through the whole of the next, a disposition towards republicanism increased evidently among the people. *Te Deum* was solemnly sung at Notre Dame in commemoration of taking the Bastile. The nobility were persecuted, together with the priests. The aristocratic members of the assembly found it expedient to quit the kindom. His majesty's title was changed from *king of France* to *king of the French.* A new division of the kingdom was made into eighty-three departments, instead of provinces, as formerly. The lands of the church were sequestered to serve the exigencies of the state. And all the titles of the nobility, together with the use of liveries and armorial bearings, were abolished by a decree of the assembly.

The mild spirit of Lewis induced him to accept a constitution, thus altered, in order to preserve peace in the nation; but it had not the desired effect. A decree of sequestration was passed on the property of the emigrants. Ecclesiastical distinctions were first done away, and afterwards the clergy were banished. And, to complete the whole, a memorial was presented from the Parisians, by Pethion, the mayor of that capital, demanding the deposition of the king.

On the 10th of August, 1792, after a dreadful massacre of the Swiss-guards, and other persons at the Thuilleries, the national assembly pronounced the deposition of the unfortunate monarch. Shortly afterwards he was confined with his family in the prison of the Temple. On the 11th day of December, he was brought up for trial to the bar of the convention; and on the 21st of January following, he was put to death by the guillotine.

The French nation was now become a republic. The queen was tried and condemned on the 15th of October; and on the 16th she was brought out from the *Conciergerie*, and deprived of life by the same sort of instrument that had beheaded her unfortunate husband.

Previously to this disputes had arisen between Great-Britain and France relative to the navigation of the

Scheldt; for, on the 1st day of February, 1793, war was declared by the republic against the kingdom of Great-Britain.

Impiety at this period became a prominent feature in France. On the 7th of November, Gobet, bishop of Paris, with other priests, abjured, in the convention, the Christian religion. Fanciful deities, such as Liberty, Equality, &c. were consecrated as objects of worship; and the further to promote this paganism, the old calender was destroyed, and a new one formed. In it, the year, beginning the 23d of September, was divided into twelve months, of thirty days each, and the remaining five days were devoted to national festivity. The Christian sabbath was ordered to be discontinued, and the day of rest fixed for every *decadi*, or tenth day.

February the 4th, 1792, the convention passed a decree, which, in the midst of all their atrocities, will be for ever remembered to their honor. Three deputies, two of them natives of St. Domingo, and the other a negro, were received at the bar, as representatives of that place. After they had given an account of the disturbances and troubles on their island, a motion was made by *La Croix*, and carried into a law, without one dissenting voice, that slavery should be *entirely* abolished within every part of the French dominions. The consular government of France, however, thought fit to attempt a privation of that liberty which the Convention granted to the negroes; and the consequence is, that the extensive and important Island, St. Domingo, is now a free state; styled the Empire of Hayti.

A treaty of peace was concluded in 1795, between the French nation and the kingdoms of Spain and Prussia. On the 9th of June, the dauphin expired in the Temple, not without suspicion of violence. He and his sister had been confined in that prison in the year 1792; but, shortly after his death, the princess was delivered up to her relations in Germany. On the 27th of October the convention ended, and a new form of legislation was established; it consisted of a 'council of

ancients, a 'council of five hundred,' and five rulers called a 'directory.'

In June 1796, the French army entered the dominions of the pope, and thereby became possessed of many of those exquisite pieces of painting and ancient sculpture, with which they have since so richly adorned their capital. They landed a small force on the coast of Pembrokeshire on the 23d of February, 1797; but it was too insignificant to commit any depredations. This year is famous for the banishment of the accused members, and for the reduction of all Italy by the French troops under General Bonaparte.

Admiral Brueys, with the Toulon fleet under his command, left that port the latter end of May 1798, accompanied by Bonaparte and an army of 40,000 men. This vast force proceeded to Egypt. The army was safely landed, and continued masters of that country till 1801; but the fleet was attacked at anchor, on the 1st of August, by admiral Nelson; and all the line of-battle ships, except one, taken or destroyed. This was not the only check the French were now to experience. In the beginning of the year 1799, the emperor of Russia sent an army, under the command of field-marshal Suwaroff, to join the Austrian forces in Italy. The Russian troops were divided by their leader into three bodies; and with them, for a considerable time, he vanquished the enemy at every point. The fears of the directory increased with the repeated defeats of the army; but their minds were restored to tranquility the January following, when Suwaroff received an order from the court of St. Petersburg, as unexpected as it was sudden, to lead his soldiers into Poland. After various success in Egypt, Bonaparte received accounts of the disasters of the French in Italy. He therefore meditated a secret return to Paris, which, strange as it may appear, his good fortune enabled him to accomplish. On the 24th of August, 1799, he left the road of Aboukir in a small ship; and, notwithstanding the English fleets covered the Mediterranean, he landed safe at Frejus in the month of October following. On his return to the capital, the

unstable government of France was once more changed. The directory was abolished, and the executive power committed to three consuls. Bonaparte, the first of these, was invested with more than regal authority: the other two, little better than cyphers, were Ducos and the abbé Sieyes.—*Turner.*

The difficult passage of the French army of reserve, commanded by Bonaparte, over the mountains of St. Bernard, was followed by the entry of the French into Milan, and by the re-establishment of the Cisalpine Republic.—This event leads us to the memorable battle of *Marengo*, which procured a peace to the European continent. The Austrian General Melas had disputed the field against the French with a most obstinate courage, and had thrice forced them to fall back and retreat; when General Desaix came up and decided the battle in favour of the French. This heroic officer was slain.

By the armistice, in July, which was concluded in two days after, a considerable number of fortresses were delivered up to the French. The definitive treaty of peace between Austria and France was concluded on the 9th of February, 1806.

On the 18th of May, 1804, the Legislative body of France conferred the imperial dignity on the first consul; which was presented to him, by the Senate in a body, in the following words—"NAPOLEON BONAPARTE is declared Emperor of the French, and the imperial dignity hereditary in legitimate descent from male to male, in the order of primogeniture, to the exclusion of females and their descent. The laws are to be promulgated thus:—Napoleon, by the grace of God, and the constitution of the republic, emperor of the French."

This decree of the legislative body, was submitted to the French people, and a register opened in each district, for 12 days, to obtain their sentiments thereon; having obtained a great majority of votes throughout the republic, it was finally sanctioned by the legislature.

In April, 1805, Bonaparte was proclaimed king of Italy, at Milan.

In June, 1805, Bonaparte annexed Genoa, and the Ligurian republic, to France!

Bonaparte crossed the Rhine, on the 1st of October, 1805, with the whole of the Grand Army, and on the 4th hostilities commenced between the French and Austrians; the latter was defeated at Guntsburgh, and the Duke of Brunswick mortally wounded. On the 19th the imperial city of *Ulm* was attacked by the French, and the Austrians completely defeated; the whole line of the Iller forced, the city and vast magazines, cannon, &c. taken, and the Austrian commander General Mack: had he been a *Mack Donald*, or a *Macknamara*, the strong city of Ulm and its numerous garrison of brave Germans would not have been so easily conquered.

December the 2d, 1805, a most bloody battle was fought, between the French and the combined Austrian and Russian army at *Austerlitz*, in which the combined forces were defeated with great loss. The combined and French armies engaged in this dreadful contest are said to have amounted to nearly three hundred thousand men. This battle is remarkable for having three emperors present at it. The emperors of Germany, Russia, and France; a circumstance we believe unprecedented, at least in modern history.

Six days after the battle of Austerlitz, an armistice was signed between the emperors of France and Austria; by which the latter was compelled to consent to another dismemberment of his dominions.

The following is a list of *new kings* and princes created by Bonaparte.—The Elector of Bavaria, king of Bavaria; Elector of Wirtemberg, king of Wirtemberg; Elector of Hesse, king of the Catti; Elector of Baden, king of Baden; Joseph Bonaparte, king of Naples; Louis Bonaparte, king of Batavia; Jerome Bonaparte, king of Westphalia; Eugene Beauharnois (son-in-law to the emperor) viceroy of Italy; Murat (brother-in-law to Bonaparte) duke of Cleves and Berg; M. Talleyrand, prince of Benevento; cardinal Fesh, (uncle to

Bonaparte) prince primate of the Rhenish confederacy; M. Bernadotte, prince of Ponte-Corvo; Marshal Lefevre, duke of Dantzick; and Marshal Berthier duke of Neufchatel.

On the 14th of June, 1807, a most bloody battle was fought between the Russians, Prussians and the French armies, at the town of *Friedland* on the River Alle. In this engagement, it is said, that the French had thirty thousand men killed and wounded; the Russians in this, and some previous engagements, lost about sixty thousand men, in killed, wounded and taken prisoners. An armistice took place shortly after this action.—*See more of France in the Appendix.*

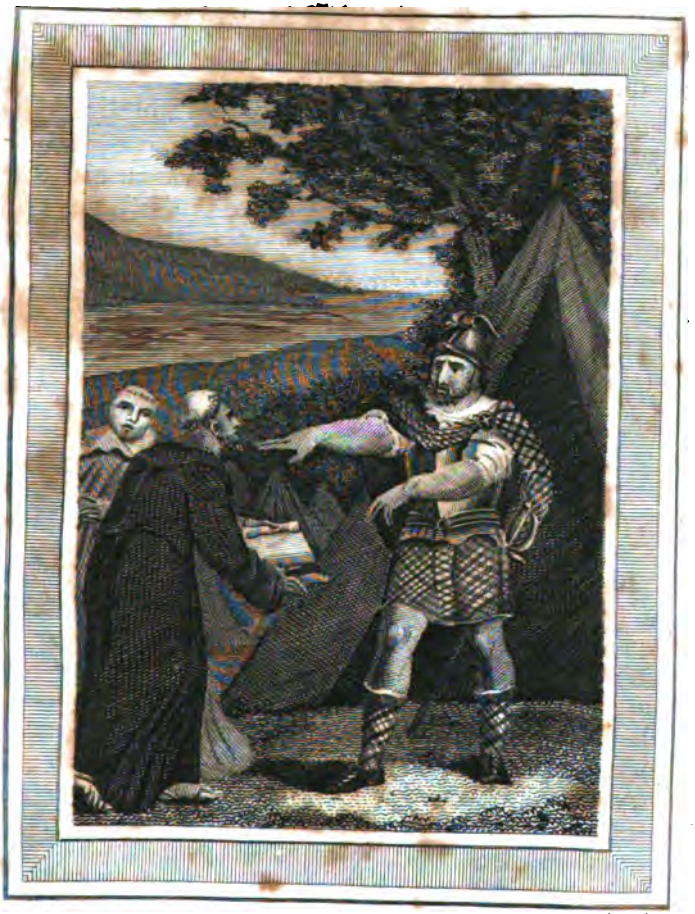
CHAPTER XXVI.

INTRODUCTION TO SCOTLAND.

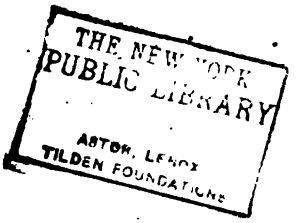
This country, anciently called Caledonia, lies between the 54th and 59th degree of north lat. and the 1st and 7th degree of west longitude from London. The River Teved on the eastern coast, and the Solway Firth on the west, determine the limits between England and Scotland.—The German ocean, with the Deucaledonean and the Irish Seas, flow around its eastern, northern, and western coasts. The isles of Orkney and Shetland lie contiguous to its most northern extremity; the Hebrides are adjacent to its north-western shores.

The highest mountain in Scotland is *Ben-Nevis*, in Inverness-shire, near Fort-William; on the north-east it is fifteen hundred feet in height.

The principal rivers in Scotland are the Tay, the Clyde, and the Forth. The chief source of the Tay is the lake of the same name. Soon after this noble river issues from the lake, it is joined by several less streams; after passing the beautiful town of Perth, it is navigable; and flows by Dundee, below which it forms a grand estuary, or frith. The mouth of the Clyde, below Glas-



SIR WILLIAM WALLACE *the Scots Patriot rejecting the overtures of* KING EDWARD.


THE NEW YORK
PUBLIC LIBRARY
ASTOR, LENOX
TILDEN FOUNDATIONS

gow, is equally advantageous to navigation. The falls of the Clyde, near Lanerk, are objects well deserving the attention of the traveller. The Frith of Forth is a remarkable gulph, formed by the mouth of that river. The Dee, the Don, and the Spey, are other rivers most worthy of notice in the north.

Throughout Scotland there are a great many beautiful lakes, but the chief in extent and magnificence, is that of Loch Lomond, studded with romantic islands, and adorned with shores of the greatest diversity. The depth of this lake, near the bottom of Ben Lomond, is from sixty to eighty fathoms. Loch Leven, in Fifeshire, attracts observation from historical fame. Loch Tay is a grand and beautiful expanse of water. Loch Ness rivals Loch Tay in extent and reputation; its great depth, being 139 fathoms, is the reason that it never freezes! Both sides of Lock Ness are beautifully variegated with woods of majestic oaks, birch, hazel, poplar, ash, beach, &c. On the north side of this loch, opposite to the famous fall of Foygers, stands a remarkable mountain; in the Gaelic tongue called, "Maull Fournvonny;" on the top of which is a small lake, which is frequently covered with ice throughout the whole year, and so deep that it never could be fathomed.

The chief minerals of Scotland are lead, iron, and coal. In passing to the less important minerals, Ben Nevis affords a beautiful granite; a black marble, fretted with white, like lace-work, occurs near Fort-William, in the Highlands; and jasper is found in various places.

Several beautiful species of marble have been lately found in the western isles, especially in those of Tirey and Cob, near the isle of Mull: no similar marble being found any where, French naturalists have called it *Tirite*, from the name of the island. It is of a rose colour, penetrated with small irregular crystals of green porblende.

One of the most surprising objects of curiosity is the vast basaltic of the isle of *Staffa*, called now Fingal's

Cave. The entrance of the cave is fifty-six feet in height, and thirty-five in breath: the whole length or depth is one hundred and forty feet. It is supported on each side by beautiful columns, disposed in the most exact order, and in form resembling the most regular pillars of architecture. The whole south-west of the island is likewise supported by ranges of these pillars, above fifty feet high, and some above sixty feet thick, standing in natural colonades.

The *aurochs,* whose bones and horns are yet found in some places, buried under many layers of earth, were the largest of the Caledonian quadrupeds: although not nourished by carnage, yet the slightest provocation was at any time enough to exasperate them to rage, and their rage was death to almost every inhabitant of the forest. The stag and the roe, particularly the latter, are numerous in the Highlands. The eagle, the falcon, the skylark, the thrush, the mevis, &c. are not unknown here: The shores and islands present numerous kinds of seafowl.

Scotland abounds with all kinds of scale and shell-fish, and contributes greatly to the supply of the English market, in lobsters, salmon, &c. On the northern and western coasts are numerous seals, (or sea dogs) and it appears from the life of St. Columba, that the ancients had a method of rendering those amphibious animals tame and obedient to call! The herrings appear off Shetland in innumerable columns in the month of June, altering the very appearance of the ocean, which ripple like a current: These columns have been computed to extend five or six miles in length, by three or four in breadth. They afterwards divide to the east and west of Great Britain, furnishing a providential supply of food to many sterile districts: How bountiful is our Beneficent Creator! May our hearts ever vibrate with fervent gratitude to so good a Benefactor!

The cities of Edinburgh* and Glasgow would do honor to any country. In each of these is an old and new town, which form a pleasant contrast.

There are other towns, where trade and industry are rapidly increasing: such as Aberdeen, Dundee, Inverness, Perth, Montrose, &c.

The law of Scotland differs in many instances from that of England, being founded in a great measure upon the civil law. The session consists of a President and fourteen Senators, is the highest court of Justice; they are all appointed for life by the king. In civil matters there are no juries as in England; criminal causes are determined by the majority, not by the unanimity of the jury as in England.

Since the Revolution of 1688, the ecclesiastical government of Scotland is of the Presbyterian form, an establishment long opposed by its monarchs as unfavorable to the royal influence. To the general assembly laymen also are admitted under the name of *Ruling Elders*, and constitute about one third of this venerable body. All clerical matters are discussed in this court, from which there is no appeal but to the British parliament. In general the present clergy merit the greatest praise, as men of enlightened minds and moderate conduct. Among the higher orders, generally, the church of England and the episcopal church of Scotland are the prevailing reli-

---

* Edinburgh is the metropolis of Scotland, and situated in Latitude 56. It was called by the ancient Scots, DUN-EDEN, on the hill of Eden, alluding as I suppose, to the garden of Eden. For this country (Mid-Lothian) with respect to its beauty, being adorned with a number of Noblemen and Gentlemen's seats, which are truly superb and elegant, a very fertile and well inhabited soil, and the prospect of one of the finest rivers in Europe, may justly be termed the Eden or Paradise of Scotland. This city is reckoned the most populous of any of its size in Europe, the houses being remarkably lofty (some more than ten stories high) and contiguous to one another. Edinburgh is situated upon a hill. On the west end of the city there rises a hill and a rock, on which is built a castle, inaccessible upon all sides but that towards the city. It was anciently called the Maiden Castle, because the *Picts* kept their daughters in it: and it was thought to be the winged castle mentioned by Ptolemy.

gion. There are but few Roman catholics, and these chiefly in the Highlands.

The Scottish language in the Lowlands is the Anglo Saxon, blended with the ancient Scandinavian. In the Highlands it is the Gaelic or Erse, a dialect of the Celtic. English, however, is understood every where, and spoken by all people of education with great accuracy. The national characters bestowed upon the inhabitants of different countries, must be received with large allowances for exaggerations and prejudice.*

The shrewdness, cunning, and selfishness imputed to the people of Scotland, give merely the unfavourable aspect of that sagacity which enables them to discover their own interest, to extricate themselves from difficulty, and to act upon every occurrence with decision and prudence.

The national spirit of Scotchmen has been often taken notice of, insomuch, that they are all supposed to be in a confederacy to commend and extol one another.—We may remark, that, as candidates for fame, or for profit in London market, they are greatly the minority, and it is not surprising that in such a situation they should feel a common bond of union, like that of strangers in a hostile country.—*Mavor.*

The ancient geographers, as Strabo observes, divided the then known world into four parts. The eastern they called India; the southern Ethiopia; the

---

* We perceive a strong propensity in most men to think more favorably of their own Country than of any other. This principle appears natural and just; but when they ascribe peculiar virtues and talents to their own countrymen, which they are not willing to allow others to possess, it is carrying the *amor patria* too far. Though America can boast of a *Washington* and a *Franklin*; England, of a *Marlborough* and a *Newton*; Scotland, of a *Wallace* and a *Buchanan*; Ireland, of a *Montgomery* and a *Boyle*; and France, of a *Turenne* and a *Montesquieu*; yet the excellence of a few, or the baseness of some, ought not to stamp the general character of any Nation.—*Editor.*

western Celtia, and the northern Scythia. In the European parts they knew but of two nations besides the Greeks, and those were the Celtæ and the Scythæ. Those that inhabited the northward, says Strabo, were called Scythæ, and those to the west Celtæ. The inhabitants of the higher Asia, situate above Media, Mount Taurus, and Caucasus, were all of them, from the beginning, called Scythians, and this name was known to the most ancient Greeks, though it had not its first rise from them, but from their dexterity in shooting of arrows,* darting their javelins, and such like exercises. These Scythians were formerly reputed the most ancient nation in the world, which made Justine,† after Trogus Pompus, say that they were before the Egyptians! who disputed the prerogative of antiquity with them, and from whom our antiquarians make the Scots to be descended. And nothing can be more certain, for, by the sacred scriptures, we find that the Scythians came from Magog, the second son of Japhet; whereas the Egyptians were the descendants of Mizraim, the second son of Shem, and consequently the former must have the pre-eminence, since Japhet was Shem's eldest brother, and the first begotton of Noah. Perron has clearly proved, that the Gomerians, or the descendants of Gomer, were called Sācae, while they continued in the Upper Asia, and that this name was anciently given to all the Scythians.

These Sacāe made great incursions towards the north part of Asia, and all over Europe; and being in quest of some proper place to fix themselves, they took a resolution, after their frequent rovings, to settle above the Euxine Sea; here they changed their names into that of Cimbrians, or Cimbri. Being thus settled about Paulus Māeodidus, they communicated their name to that famous strait called the Cimbrian Bosphorus.‡—

* See M. Perron's Antiquities of Nations.
† See History, chapter I.
‡ See Diodorus Siculus, Strabo, and Plutarch.

"Now these Cimbrians," says bishop Stillingfleet, "having no skill in navigation or astronomy, and the woods in the first ages of the world impassible, the people still went further and further by the river's sides, till at last, finding themselves bounded by the vast mountains in these northern countries, and the sea beyond them, they sat down there, and in time so replenished those parts, that they were desirous to discharge themselves, by sending colonies abroad; to which end they accustomed themselves to the sea, and thence these Scythians came into the northern parts of Britain, where they had the name of Caledonians. Now, Ireland being the next adjacent country to them, and in their view, it was very natural for them, when they were overstocked with people, to send a colony thither.

To confirm this conjecture of the peopling of Ireland from the north of Britain, and that both are descended from the ancient Scythians, the learned Strabo, in his first book, gives the name of Celtæ and Iberi, or rather that of Celti-Berians and Celti-Scythians, to those people who lived towards the western parts of Europe; and from the Celti-Berians in Ireland, is that country called Ibernia; as the Scyths being in the north of Britain, was the reason of its being called Scotia, or Scotland; also Alfred, in the English translation of Orosius, calls them Scytan, and the Germans call both the Scythians and Stots, *Scutten*. Another strong argument for this conjecture, is, the conformity that is to be observed betwixt the customs and manners of the ancient Celtæ-Scythæ and the Scots Highlanders. The Celtæ wore a small cap, or rather a little round bonnet, upon their head; so do the Highlanders. They were naturally valiant, inured to hardships, agile and expert in all manly exercises; so are the Highlanders. The arms of the Celtæ were a head piece, a target, bows and arrows, and a short sword like a bayonet; and some of our Highlanders have these arms to this very day. If the Celtæ had their bards or poets, who sung the illustrious actions of their ancestors, so have the High-

landers. If the Celtæ, by misfortune, were beaten, they chose rather to die with their swords in their hands, than to be taken prisoners; so did the Highlanders in former days. The Celtæ, when they went to battle, encouraged their men to fight by music; so do the Highlanders. The Celtæ were abstemious and plain in their way of feeding; so were our Highlanders. The Celtæ, that they might make their children hardy, robust, and healthy, used to wash them in cold water; so do the Highlanders. The *language* of the Celtæ is still retained by the Highlanders. And lastly, the Celtæ were clothed in *plaids*, after the same manner that the Scots Highlanders are, as appears from what is said of them by *Caius S. Appolonius*, in the fourth book of his Epistles.

Tacitus, in the life of his father-in-law Agricola,* says that in his time the northern parts of this island were well inhabited, as will appear by the following account that he has given of them. The Brigants, who extended as far as the river Tine, were, as he saith, subdued by Petilius Cerealis; the Silures by Julius Frontinus; the Ordorices by Julius Agricola, in his first entry upon this province; but in his third campaign he went as far as the river Tay. In his fifth he says that he fought with and discovered nations before unknown; and in his sixth he applied himself to the conquest of these nations, among whom a general insurrection was apprehended, and all the passages by land were supposed to be beset; and, therefore, Agricola sent out a fleet to discover the country, the very sight of which struck them with great terror and amazement—And then, says he, the Caledonians armed themselves, and set upon the Romans with all the force they could make, and falling upon the ninth legion unexpectedly, they had totally defeated them if the army had not come up very timely to rescue them; by which good success the Roman ar-

* Tac. vit. Agr. chap. 17, 18.

my, being much encouraged, cried out to march into Caledonia, that they might, at last, come to the utmost part of Britain. But the Caledonians, not ascribing this to the valor of the Romans, but to the bad conduct of their general, resolved to fight it out bravely; and having disposed of their wives and children in places of safety, after several meetings and solemn sacrifices, they entered into a strict confederacy to stand to the utmost against the Romans. They shortly raised an army of thirty thousand men, under the command of Galgacus, or Galdus, whom historians make the twenty-first king of Scotland. This excellent prince, being ready to give them battle, told them, in his masterly oration, so much commended by Justin Lipsius, "that they were the last of the Britons, there being no nation beyond them; and he calls them the most noble of the Britons, who had never beheld the slavery of others."* Upon this a bloody battle was fought at the foot of the Grampian hills, where Galgacus had ten thousand of his men killed and the rest dispersed; after which Agricola was recalled.

This is the substance of what Tacitus says concerning the inhabitants of North-Britain. From Tacitus' account it is evident that our countrymen at that time, were not inconsiderable for their numbers and valor, who were able to oppose the whole Roman army, and make their victory so doubtful.

Rudbeck has undertaken to prove that *Ptolomy* was extremely mistaken in the situation of the northern nations, removing them several degrees more eastward than they ought to have been, and so very much straitening Scandinavia; which for its vast population, Jirandes calls the work-house of nations. These European Scythians made frequent expeditions by sea; and Tacitus says

* Thus the pen of an enemy has conferred immortality upon the renowned Galgacus; and the laurel which was intended for the brow of Agricola, imparted a verdant and ever blooming wreath to his illustrious victim.

particularly of the Sueonos,* that they were well provided with shipping. And also, Olans Rudbeck, from the old Gothetic historians,† tells us, "that it was a custom for them to go abroad by sea. Therefore, as Stillingfleet has justly observed,‡ there can be no improbability that these northern nations should people that part of Britain which lay nearest them."

From these, and a number of other arguments that might be adduced if necessary, it is much more probable that the ancient Scyts or Scots first peopled Ireland than that it was peopled from Egypt or Spain, as some authors have attempted to prove.

Agricola, with a numerous army, made another attempt to conquer the Caledonians. Upon which Galdus made an excellent and animated speech to his soldiers, which concluded thus: "In short, here is the general, and here is the army. There you see tributes and slavery: here death or liberty—Therefore let us consider the glory of our intrepid ancestors, and the fate of our posterity."

This speech being delivered with the fierceness of a lion, and darting on the Romans like a flash of lightning, was immediately seconded with the acclamations of the whole army. Agricola, on the other side, encouraged his men with all the force and charms of the Roman eloquence; and fearing to be flanked, he drew out his flank to the utmost length, and advanced himself at the head of his foot. The battle began at some distance from the main body, wherein the Caledonians shewed great art and courage, by means of their broad swords and targets, with which they warded off the darts of the enemy. To prevent which inconveniency, Agricola ordered the Batavian and Tungrian cohorts to advance against

---

* De Mor. Germ. Chap. 44.

† Atlan. Chap. 7

‡ Orig. Brit. chap. 5, p. 247.

them, with their sharp-pointed bucklers, which rendered their pointless swords useless, and so mangled their faces, that they were obliged to retire. This advantage being seconded by the emulation of the other cohorts, the main body of the Scots army, which had till now staid upon the tops of the mountains, came down, thinking to surround the Romans. But Agricola, suspecting this event, opposed them with four wings of horsemen, which he had reserved in case of any sudden stratagem. Then the battle was fought by both parties with the utmost valor and fury; and all the bravest men of the Caledonians being slain, Galdus was compelled to retire with the remaining part of his army to the mountains. In this battle twenty thousand Caledonians and twelve thousand Romans were slain. After the victory Agricola was called home by the emperor Domitian.

Shortly after his departure, sedition arose in the Roman camp. Upon which, the Scots and Picts raised a new army, under the command of Galdus, attacked the Romans, obtained a signal victory over them, and pursued them to the country of the Brigants, where the Romans were forced not only to sue for peace, but to content themselves with those parts of South Britain which they had reduced to the form of a province, leaving the Caledonians in peaceable possession of all the northern parts. After this, Galdus reigned a number of years, in great peace and happiness; and died at Epiack, which was then the principal city in Scotland, in the thirty-fifth year of his reign, and in the year of our Lord one hundred and three.

To Galdus succeeded his son Luctacus, a prince who gave himself up to all manner of excesses and debaucheries. In the third year of his reign, having called his counsellors together at Dunstaffage, the most wise and grave men among them began to exhort him to imitate the virtues of his father, the brave and worthy Galdus, and not to suffer such acts of cruelty and oppression to be committed as were daily done by his authority.—But he, instead of taking their advice, commanded

them to prison. The people being informed of this act of arbitrary power, assembled and killed their king and all his favorites.

Mogallus, or Mogaldus, the grandson of the noble Galdus by his daughter, succeeded Luctacus. In the beginning of his reign he reformed all the abuses that his subjects complained of; and having settled all things in good order, he raised an army to oppose the Romans, who had made several incursions upon his dominions. In a pitched battle he gave the Romans a signal overthrow. The emperor Hadrian being informed of this, sent over Julius Severus to oppose Mogaldus. But he being suddenly recalled, on account of some insurrection in Syria, the emperor himself was obliged to come over with an army; and he being a greater lover of peace than war, desired rather to retain the bounds of his empire than to enlarge them. When he came to York, and found the country beyond it harrassed by war, he resolved to take a particular view of the devastation, and marched his army to the river Tyne; where, being informed by the old soldiers that followed Agricola, of the great difficulty that he would have in conquering the Caledonians, he built a wall and trench, in the year one hundred and twenty one, extending eighty miles in length, and by it excluded the Scots and Picts from the Provincial Britons.*

According to bishop Elphinston's history, now in the Bodleian Library, at Oxford, it appears that Fergus, a native of Ireland, was the first king of Scotland, who was crowned three hundred and thirty years before the incarnation of our Saviour! Fergus having totally defeated Coilus the king of the Britons, on the banks of the river Don, the southern and eastern parts of Scotland were called Coil, or Kyle, which name the inhabitants of those parts still retain in the Highland tongue.

---

* See the learned Dr. Geo. Mackenzie's Works.

CHAPTER XXVII.

Scots and Picts.—Kenneth II.—Bruce and Baliol.—The James's.

In the reign of Constantine, Caledonia was divided between the Scots and Picts, whose ruling passion was the love of arms; and their warriors, who stripped themselves for the day of battle, were distinguished in the eyes of the Romans by the strange custom of painting their naked bodies with gaudy colours and fantastic figures,* like the inhabitants of England before the invasion of Julius Cæsar.

On the final departure of the Romans from this island, the northern tribes made cruel depredations on their southern neighbours.

The Scots and Picts long continued separate; and the hand of nature had contributed to mark the distinction. The former were the men of the hills, and the latter of the plains. At length Kenneth II. about the middle of the ninth century, who was the 69th king of the Scots, completely subdued the Picts, and united into one monarchy the whole country, from the wall of Adrian to the Northern Ocean, when his kingdom became known by its present name, Scotland.

The successors of Kenneth were engaged in continual contests with the Saxons, Danes, and other barbarous nations, that had settled in the northern counties of England.

No pretence was made by the English monarchs to a claim of sovereignty over Scotland, till the Scottish king, William, surnamed the Lion, in an incursion into the bordering counties of England, was taken prisoner by Henry II. and compelled to do homage for his kingdom. This claim was renounced by Richard I. but

* Gibbon.

again renewed by Edward I. upon the death of Alexder III. From this period the history of Scotland becomes more interesting.

Alexander leaving no male issue, two competitors appeared for the vacant throne, John Baliol and Robert Bruce, descendants of David, earl of Huntington, third son of David I. Bruce was the third son of Isabel, earl David's second daughter; and Baliol was the grandson of Margaret, the eldest daughter.

Edward of England was chosen umpire of the contest. This monarch, with artful policy, first prevailed on the Scottish barons to admit his claims of sovereignty, and afterwards, finding Baliol the most obsequious of the two, put him in possession of the crown. Baliol soon after, exasperated at the haughty superiority which Edward assumed, renounced his feudal dependency, and was compelled to abdicate the throne.

The English king now attempted to seize the kingdom, as fallen to himself by the rebellion of his vassal, but was baffled in his attempts by the heroic valour of sir William Wallace, who nobly took up arms in defence of the freedom of his country;* and Robert Bruce, who, as grandson of Baliol's competitor, asserted his claim; and at length having established himself on the throne, A. D. 1307, restored the independency of the kingdom of Scotland. He settled the crown, in failure of his own male issue, on his daughter Margery, married to the high steward of Scotland.

His son, David Bruce, was a weak but virtuous prince. The beginning of his reign was disturbed by the usurpation of Edward Baliol, who, after nine years, was driven out of the kingdom. David was afterwards involved in continual war with Edward III. by whom

* This worthy patriot (like the great Cincinnatus and Washington) returned to his farm, after securing the freedom of his country. It is devoutly to be wished that modern and future warriors would imitate such exemplary characters!

he was taken prisoner at the battle of Durham, and conveyed to England. He died A. D. 1370.

Robert II. the son of Margery Bruce, succeeded, and was the first of the house of Stewart. This was an unimportant reign.

Robert III. ascended the throne of his father. His infirmities and weakness obliged him to resign the government into the hands of his brother, the duke of Albany. The unnatural ambition of the regent, who aspired to the crown, involved him in the murder of David, the king's eldest son, A. D. 1401. The unhappy father, fearful lest the same should befal James, his second son, attempted to convey him to France; but the young prince was intercepted by the English, though in the time of a profound truce, and ungenerously detained a prisoner nineteen years. Robert died of grief, A. D. 1405.

James I. returned from captivity to the throne of Scotland, A. D. 1424. His reign was remarkable for the excellence and wisdom of his administration. He reformed the laws, and restrained the inordinate power of the nobles. These regulations alarmed the haughty barons. They conspired with the earl of Athol, and assassinated their monarch, in the fifty-fourth year of his age, and the thirteenth of his reign, A. D. 1437.

James II. a prince of an impetuous temper, pursued the plans of his father for the humiliation of the nobles. He reigned with absolute authority; civilized and improved his kingdom, and was killed at the siege of Roxburgh in 1460.

James III. was a feeble and impolitic prince. He quarrelled with the barons, and attached himself to mean favourites. The nobles revolted, and compelled the king's son to head the insurrection. The unfortunate James was defeated, and killed at the battle of Bannockburn, in 1488.

James the IV. was an accomplished monarch, respected by his nobles, and beloved by his people. He married Margaret, daughter of Henry 7th. A rupture

happening in England, he invaded Northumberland, and was slain in the rash and unfortunate battle of Flowden, in 1513. He was succeeded by

James V. a great but uncultivated spirit. Though his education had been neglected, he was an encourager of learning; promoted new manufactories, and invited foreign artificers to reside in his kingdom. His reign was long and turbulent. He humbled the nobles by conferring all offices of trust on the clergy, refusing to imitate the conduct of Henry VIII. in throwing off the jurisdiction of the Pope, the English monarch turned his arms against him at the battle of Solway—Moss, which followed, James was deserted by his army.—This had such an effect upon him that he abandoned himself wholly to despair, which terminated his life in 1542.

Mary, his daughter and successor, was born only eight days before her father's death. The intrigues, amours, and misfortunes of this truly accomplished but unhappy Queen, are familiar to every one. She was beheaded in England, by order of Queen Elizabeth, in 1587.

James VI. succeeded his unfortunate mother in Scotland, and on the death of Elizabeth, ascended to the throne of England by the title of James 1st. By this removal of the court, trade was for a time checked, agriculture neglected, and the people impoverished. But in the reign of queen Anne (1707) the affairs of Scotland were placed on a more prosperous footing than ever, by an act of union, which consolidated the two kingdoms into one, under the title of Great Britain: from this period the Scottish is one and the same with England.—*Turner.*

The following remarks, copied from Dr. Mavor's Universal History* will give our readers an idea of some

* A work of great merit.

of the sanguinary contests which took place between two brave nations, now, and for a century past, happily united.

From Margaret of Norway to the death of Bruce.

Margaret was an infant and in a foreign country.—Faction and anarchy distracted the kingdom. Edward, one of the most valiant and polite monarchs that ever sat on the English throne, was ambitious of adding Scotland to the dominions of his crown.

He applied to the court of Rome, to authorise a marriage between his son and his grand niece, and having gained the consent of Eric, he intrigued with the Scottish nobles to obtain their concurrence. Every thing served to favor his views, when one fatal event rendered his well concerted plan entirely abortive.

The child sickened on the passage from Norway, was brought on shore in Orkney, and there languished and died.

The consternation of the Scots can be more easily imagined than described: they saw full before them the unhappy prospect of a disputed succession, war with England and intestine discord. The anarchy attending an interregnum rendered the exigency pressing; it was evident, that if the decision was left to the claimants, the sword alone must determine the dispute. In order, therefore, to avoid the miseries of a civil war, Edward was chosen umpire, and both parties agreed to acquiesce in his decree.

The chief or rather the only competitors for the crown were Bruce and Baliol, the descendants of David, Earl of Hunting don, who was brother to the two kings, Malcom and William. Bruce was the grandson, and Baliol the great-grandson of David. But Bruce was descended of the younger, and Baliol of the elder sister. Both had considerable property in England, and each had his adherents in Scotland. Edward carrying a great army advanced to the frontiers, whither he invi-

ed the nobility and all the competitors to attend him.—He opened the conferences by informing them that he was come to determine the right among the competitors to the crown, not in virtue of the reference made to him, but in quality of superior, and liege lord of the realm.

He then produced his proofs of this superiority, and required of them an acknowledgment of it. The Scottish deputies, astonished at so new a pretension, answered only by their silence. One bolder than the rest at last replied—"that, concerning this claim of feudal supremacy, no determination could be made while the throne should be vacant." "By holy Edward, whose crown I wear," said the monarch with stern impatience,

"I will vindicate my just rights, or perish in the attempt."

At their request he granted them a delay till the morrow, in order that they might deliberate. Next day the deputies declined giving any answer to a question which could only be decided by the whole community. In consequence of this remonstrance Edward gave them a further delay of three weeks for taking the sense of their constituents. On the second of June following the assembly resumed its session.

Robert Bruce was first to acknowledge the superiority of Edward, in which he was followed by all the competitors. Barnet, on the part of Edward, protested, that although now the acknowledged lord paramount of Scotland, he did not finally relinquish his right to the immediate sovereignty of that kingdom. One hundred and four commissioners were nominated to examine the several claims against the ensuing year.

Meanwhile, Edward demanded possession of all the fortresses, which were shamefully given up to him; and to crown their disgrace, the prelates and barons present swore fealty to the king of England; and the like oath was required of those who were absent.

The commissioners, upon examination, gave their verdict in favor of Baliol, who was crowned accordingly,

and did homage to Edward; but this royal vassal was not to hold the sceptre long. Edward pretended to rule in Scotland over king and subjects by English laws. Baliol remonstrated. Edward summoned him to the bar of his tribunal as a private person. Baliol, though a prince of gentle disposition, returned into Scotland, provoked at this usage, and resolved at all hazards to vindicate his liberty: with this view, he concluded a secret treaty with France. The niece of that king was given in marriage to the son of Baliol, and they mutually engaged to assist each other against Edward.

Notwithstanding this treaty Philip de Valois made a truce with Edward, and left the Scots to bear the brunt of the English armament by sea and land.

The war commenced by an invasion of England.—The Highlanders ravaged all the country as far as Carlisle, to which they laid siege. Edward attacked Berwick: he found it well garrisoned and defended. We are told that in a sally the garrison burnt eighteen of his ships, and put the crews to the sword. But Edward's land army were at the gates; they assaulted, took, and sacked the town, massacreing its inhabitants without distinction.

Elated with success, Edward dispatched an army against Dunbar. The Scots hastened to its relief, a fatal battle was fought, in which the Scots lost 10,000 men. Dunbar was taken. Its fall was followed by that of Rossburgh. Edinburgh and Sterling opened their gates to the enemy; and in a short space all the southern parts were subdued.

Still, however, might a valiant prince have found resources: but the feeble and timid Baliol, disgusted with his own subjects, overawed by the English, hastened to make his submission, and made a solemn and irrevocable resignation of his crown into the hands of Edward. He was carried prisoner to England, and committed to the tower. Earl Warrene was left governor of Scotland: the other officers were all entrusted to England.

Among the barbarous expedients devised to humble and reduce Scotland for ever, was that of destroying or carrying away every record, every monument of national history or national independence. Robert Bruce had contributed to the overthrow of Baliol, in hopes of advancing his own preferment. When he humbly ventured to mention his claims to Edward, "What," said the king to him, "have we nothing else to do but to conquer kingdoms for you?" The temptation was too strong for the virtue of the English monarch to resist, and he determined to hold fast what his arms and policy had gained.

National animosities, and the insolence of victory, now conspired to render the English government intolerable to the Scots, who bore with the utmost impatience a yoke to which, from the earliest period of their monarchy, they had been unaccustomed. Warrene retiring into England, on account of his bad state of health, left the administration in the hands of Ormesby, who was appointed justiciary of Scotland, and Crepingham, who held the office of treasurer. With these there remained a small military force to secure their precarious authority.

At this distressing period (1296) arose a true hero, a disinterested patriot, in the person of Sir William Wallace, whose magnanimous soul could no longer brook to see his country torn by factions, deserted by its chiefs, and oppressed by foreigners. Robust, active and brave, he stept forth to reunite the friends of liberty under his banner.

The lustre of his birth is lost in that of his actions: the rapidity of his victories, and the frequency of his exploits, have disordered the chronology of his history. Many of his noblest actions were, no doubt, performed before his reputation found access to the annals of his country.

In May 1297 he made a bold attempt to surprize Ormesby, the English justiciary, then holding a court at Scone. Ormesby, with difficulty, escaped to Eng-

land. He was soon followed by all the officers of Edward, so that Wallace and his men, with an astonishing rapidity, became masters of Lanerk, Dundee, Forfar, Brekin, and Montrose; the castle of Durotters, reckoned impregnable, received a Scottish garrison; and Aberdeen being set on fire by the English, was abandoned to the patriotic band.

Every new enterprise added to the glory of his name, and to the number of his followers, till at last he found himself at the head of a numerous army.

Well aware that they should meet with no mercy at the hands of Edward, who would treat them as rebellious subjects, the Scots were rendered desperate, and, by necessity, forced to the cruel expedient of putting to the sword every Englishman that they found in arms. King Edward, then in France, ordered the earl of Surrey to suppress this daring insurrection. An army of forty-thousand, led on by lord Henry Percy, marched against Wallace. They found him advantageously posted near Irwin.

But the jealousy and discontent of the nobles ruined their cause: they saw with envy the growing reputation and authority of a private gentleman; confusion and irresolution ensued: in short, the most eminent made their submission and obtained their pardon from Edward's officers. Wallace and his faithful band scornfully refused to follow his fickle associates, declaring they would never lay down their arms till the country was restored to liberty and independence. They even harrassed the rear of the English army, but were repulsed with the loss of a thousand men.

Still undaunted and unsubdued, Wallace retreated northwards, where he was joined by new adherents.

When Warrene advanced to Stirling, he found Wallace encamped in excellent order on the opposite bank of the Forth. Willing to try again the same arts of negociation, he sent two friars to Wallace to offer conditions of peace.

" Go, (said Wallace) tell your masters, we came not here to treat, but to assert our rights, and to set Scotland free; let them advance, they will find us prepared."

Indignant at this defiance, Crepingham, at the head of his forces, prepared to cross the river by a wooden bridge that was laid over it. Wallace slowly led down his troops, and advanced to meet them; but ere half the army had passed, he attacked them before they could form; put them to rout, and obtained a complete victory.

This success merited to Wallace the title of Guardian; but he still acknowledged the captive king Baliol. Famine, the unavoidable consequences of so long a civil war, now threatened Scotland. Wallace led his troops into England, in order to subsist at the expence of the enemy; and having met with no opposition, returned in triumph, loaded with booty.

This was to be the last of Wallace's successful enterprises.

King Edward returned from France, and marched into Scotland at the head of seventy thousand men. Nothing could save the Scots but an entire union among themselves. The elevation of Wallace was still an object of envy to the nobles. Sensible of their discontent, the patriotic hero voluntarily resigned his authority.

The chief command now devolved on the steward of Scotland and the cumyn of Badenock. Wallace only retained one corps that refused to fight under any other leader. The English army came up with them near Falkirk.

The Scottish bowmen were soon driven off the field by the English archers, who surpassed those of other nations. The pikemen, cooped up in their entrenchments, were so galled by the arrows, that they were thrown into disorder; in short, the whole Scottish army was broken and dispersed with great slaughter. Wallace's military skill and presence of mind enabled

him to keep his troops entire, and, retreated behind the Carron, he marched in safety along its banks.

Young Bruce, then serving in the English army, desired a conference with him from the opposite side of the river. He represented to him the folly of continuing so bloody and fruitless a contest with a powerful monarch, and endeavoured to bend the inflexible spirit of Wallace to submission, insinuating that nothing but ambition could prompt him to continue in arms.

The hero disclaimed any ambitious views, but reproached Bruce for his degeneracy and indolence.—"To you," said he, "are owing the miseries of your country. You left her overwhelmed with woes, and I undertook the cause you betrayed—a cause which I shall maintain as long as I breathe; while you live with ignominy, and court the chains of a foreign tyrant."

These sentiments sunk deep into the mind of Bruce, and at last produced that heroism which made him a worthy successor of Wallace, in the deliverance of his country.

After this we find no trace of Wallace in the Scottish historians for two years. Some pretend that he went over to France; others, that he still ranged among the hills: be that as it may, Edward with much ado completed at last the conquest of Scotland, without being able to sieze or subdue the patriotic knight.

Disappointed in all his schemes for that purpose, he did not disdain to stoop to treachery—Sir William was basely betrayed by a traitor in whom he trusted, and was sent in chains to London; here he was tried as a rebel against a sovereign whom he had never acknowledged, and whose power was founded on tyranny and injustice. All this and more was urged by Wallace in his defence: his remonstances were disregarded, and he was condemned to suffer the death of a traitor, which sentence was put in execution, to the indelible disgrace of Edward's memory. This was the unworthy fate of a hero who, through a course of many years, had with signal conduct, intrepidity, and perseverance, defended the liber-

ties of his native country against a public and oppressive enemy.

We have been more particular in the history of this remarkable character than our limits would admit of in general.

A person of no less illustrious fame now claims our attention. Robert Bruce, the restorer of the Scottish throne, and father of a new race of kings, was the grandson of the competitor for the crown. He was in the bloom of life, when he resolved to quit Edward's court to make good his family's claims. His motions were watched with a jealous eye; yet he contrived to escape, and to join the Scots patriots at Lochmaben.

Among these was Cumyn, a man of great power, but in whom Bruce could put no trust. Historians do not agree as to the causes of this difference: but the first act of Bruce was to murder Cumyn, which he did in a church at Dumfries, by stabbing him with a dagger. This violation of the sanctuary, and at least of the forms of justice, was what afterwards drew down on his head the anathemas of the church. Obliged now to have recourse to arms, he hastened to collect what forces he could, attacked the English, who where unprepared, and having got possession of several castles, he was solemnly crowned at Scone.

King Edward lost no time to check this new insurrection. He dispatched immediately Aymer de Valence into Scotland, who falling in with Bruce at Mithven, attacked him, and, notwithstanding a most vigorous resistance, totally defeated the Scottish army.

Bruce fled, almost unattended, to the western isles, where he wandered about for some time in great distress.

Opportunely for his cause, Edward died on his way to Scotland, whither he was again conducting a numerous army. Thus delivered from a powerful enemy, Bruce's party daily increased. He was soon master of the western highlands, and after a continued train of success, forced Edward II. to a truce.

On the renewal of the war, Edward marched into Scotland with an army so powerful, that Bruce found it prudent to retire to the mountains. The English were, however, obliged to retreat, partly for want of provisions, and partly on account of discontents at home. The year following, Edward assembled his whole forces, amounting, say the Scottish historians, to one hundred thousand men.

Robert's army did not exceed thirty thousand men; but they were men of tried valour. He encamped beside a rivulet, called Bannock-burn, near Stirling.

The castle being in the hands of the English, had been long besieged by the Scots. Edward was determined to relieve it. He arrived in sight in the evening, and immediately an engagement took place between the two bodies of cavalry.

In this action Robert encountered Henry de Bohun, and with one stroke of his battle-axe, cleft his adversary to the chin. From this favourable event, the Scots prognosticated a happy issue to the battle of the ensuing day. All night the troops rested on their arms. About dawn the English advanced to the attack, the earl of Gloucester led the van, and impetuously rushed on the foe: the cavalry which he commanded, fell among covered pits which Bruce had prepared, and were put into disorder. Gloucester himself was overthrown and slain. Randolph on the left wing of the Scots, and Douglas and Walter Stewart in the centre, soon brought into action the corps under their command.

The English archers greatly overmatched the Scots. But 500 light horsemen, detached under Sir Robert Reith, armed with battle axes, dispersed or hewed them to pieces. All this while a great part of the English forces were prevented by the disadvantages of the ground from sharing in the engagement. Bruce, with the Scottish reserve, now appeared in the front of the battle, and at the same moment the English beheld on the heights what they took to be a fresh reinforcement arriving to the aid of the Scots. These were the at-

tendants of the camp, whom Bruce had ordered to appear in battle array, with colours flying. Panic-struck at the sight, the English gave way, and soon betook themselves to flight. The Scots pursued and made a great slaughter. King Edward, with difficulty escaped to Dunbar: but the flower of his nobility fell on that day, and the liberty of Scotland triumphed.

This memorable day did not however restore peace: continual inroads were made on England, and even an attempt on Ireland, by the warlike followers of Bruce.

But first a parliament was convened at Ayr, where the rights of that hero to the crown were fully acknowledged, and the succession established. The princess Margery, presumptive heir of Robert, was given in marriage to Walter Stewart; and their son Robert was afterwards king, and the first of the Stewart race.

Edward Bruce, chosen chief of the expedition into Ireland, was received as king by the Irish. Reinforced repeatedly by his brother, he had penetrated to the walls of Dublin; famine alone compelled him to retreat, and to risk his all on the fate of one day; he fell a victim to his ardent valour, and was found among the dead at the battle of Dundalk.

Hostilities were still carried on between the Scots and English with unremitting ardour. The pope thought himself called upon to put a stop to the effusion of human blood: he therefore proclaimed a truce, A. D. 1318, but his proclamation was not attended to.

Nor was any truce agreed to till 1328. Then the papal legates were admitted into Scotland, where they pronounced sentence of excommunication against Bruce and the Scots.

The barons justified their defence of their liberties; their remonstrance had its effect at Rome. The holy father felt that Edward had great share of the blame in the calamities of the war.

It was however again renewed, and the truce of thirteen years was not concluded till after two campaigns more. During this suspension of hostilities, Robert

obtained absolution from the sentence of excommunication, and crushed a conspiracy at home: but on the deposition of king Edward, he renewed the war, wrested at length from England a solemn renunciation of all claims on Scotland, and secured a peace by marrying his son David to Han, sister of Edward III.

Thus ended the glorious conflict of Robert Bruce for the independence of his crown, after a reign of twenty-four years.

A concise view of the principal towns, rivers, and most ancient families, in all the shires or counties in Scotland.

The shire of Merse—principal towns, Dunse and Lauder: rivers, the Tweed, Whitter, and Ednem. The most ancient families are, the Humes, Gordons, Spotswoods, and Wedderburns.

Roxburgh-shire.—Towns, Zedburg, Kelso, and Melross: rivers, Tweed, Teviot, Zed, and Eal: ancient families, Douglasses, Scotts, Riddles, Elliots, and Turnbulls.

Dumfries.—Towns, Dumfries and Annan: most ancient families, Maxwells and Hunters: rivers, Neth and Loch'ar. This county abounds with excellent timber, particularly the wood of Drumlanick, of good oak, &c.

Wigton, or Galloway-shire.—Chief towns are, Kirkcudbright and Wigton. This county is watered by five rivers, the Ne, Dee, Ken, Cree, and Leffee. The most ancient families here are, the Maxwells, Armstrongs, Clendennings, Irvins, Bells, Christies, Johnstons, Mackees, M'Donalds, and Brodies.

Kyle, or Ayr-shire.—The principal town in this county is Ayr. This town is famous for its antiquities; it is thought to be the same which Ptolomy calls Vidogora. The most ancient families here are, the Campbells, Hyslops, Cunninghams, Wallaces, Dunbars, and Murdochs. The other towns of note here are, Irwin,

and Largis. The latter is famous for the total defeat of the Norwegians by king Alexander III.

Renfrew.—Principal towns are, Renfrew, Paisley, Greenock, and Port-Glasgow. Most ancient families, the Stuarts, Cathcarts, Shaws, and Maxwells. Rivers, Blackcart, Whitecart, and Grise.

Lanerk, or Clydesdale.—The principal town here is Glasgow, situated in latitude 55, 52, longitude 4, 51, from London; a populous and elegant city, and for wealth and commerce is the second in the nation; it is pleasantly situated on the banks of the Clyde. The most ancient families in this county are, the Douglasses, Buchanans, Thomsons, Ramsays, and Hunters. Principal river, the Clyde, which is navigable from Glasgow to the ocean.

Dunbarton.—The principal town in this county is Dunbarton. The most ancient families are the Campbels, Napiers, Hamiltons, Newlands, and Buchanans. In this county the famous poet, historian, and wit, *George Buchanan*, was born. The town of Kilpatrick here, is famous for being the birth place of St. Patrick, archbishop of Armagh, and the apostle of the Irish nation.

Linlithgow, or West-Lothian. The principal town is Linlithgow. The most ancient families are, the Hamiltons, Hays, Seatons, Scotts and Douglasses.

Stirling.—The principal city here is Stirling. The principal rivers are, the Forth, Avon, Carron and Bannockburn. The most ancient families are, the Livingstons, Bruces, Murrays, Gardners, Stirlings and Grahams.

Clackmanan shire.—The principal town Clackmanan.

The shire of Fife.—The principal town here is Saint Andrews, so called from the relicts of the Apostle St. Andrew, whose bones are said to have been brought hither from Patros in Peloponesus, in the year 368.—The other towns here are Cooper, Dunfermline, Kinross, Kinghorn and Innerkeithing. The principal rivers here are Eden and Levin. The most ancient fami-

Kilmarnock, lies here are the Erskines, Lyons, Sinclairs, Gibsons, Barclays, Hopes, Forbesses, Woods, Colvils, Bruces, and Lindsays.

Perth.—The principal town here is Perth, pleasantly situated on the banks of the river Tay. Dunkeld, another town in this county, is thought to have been the principal seat of the ancient Caledonians. Scoon; in this county also, is the place where the kings of Scotland were crowned. The principal rivers here are, Tay, Allan, Earn. The most ancient families are the Campbells, Ruthvens, Blairs, Stuarts, and Drummonds.

Angus-shire, or Fairfax.—The principal towns here are Dundee, Brechin, and Forfax. The most ancient families, the Erskines, Kings, Mauls, Grays, Ogilvies, and Hunters.

Merns, or Kincardin.—The principal towns are Kincardin and Stonhive. The most ancient families, the Keiths, Duncans, Mavors, Strahans, Burnets, and Smiths.

Aberdeen-shire contains Mar, Brise, Glenmick, Strathdee, part of Buchan, &c. It is bounded by Gowry and Merns on the south; by Buchan on the north; Perth and Inverness shire on the west, and the German ocean on the east. The chief towns are New and Old Aberdeen; the new town, in point of trade, population and elegance, is justly deemed the third town in Scotland. In each of these towns is a well endowed seminary, the one called King's college, and the other Mareschal college; both are called the University of Aberdeen. Many gentlemen eminent for literary and scientific abilities, have been educated at this university. Among others, now living, might be mentioned, Doctors Kemp and Wilson, and James Hardie, A. M.: the two former have been for some years distinguished professors of mathematics and languages, in Columbia College, in the city of New-York, and the latter author of several useful publications. The principal rivers in Aberdeenshire are the Dee and Don; two of the richest rivers in Britain for salmon.

Abeerdeen-shire abounds with all the necessaries of life; the mountainous part of it affords good timber and pasturage, and the level part excellent wheat and other small grains. The most ancient families here are the Gordons, Erskines, Hays, Keiths, Ogilvies, Seatons and Abercrombies.

The shire of Inverness formerly contained all the country from Lochleven to the Orkney islands; it comprehends, at present, Lochabar, Badenock, Strathspey, Stratherick, Strathglass and Glenmorrison. It is bounded by the Brae of Mar and Athol on the south; by Argyleshire on the west; by Ross and Murray Firth on the east, and by the western sea on the north. The length of it from Inverness to Inverloky is 50 miles. Principal town is Inverness, which is situated on the south side of the river Ness, and has a commodious harbour. There was formerly a strong castle here, wherein the kings of Scotland resided. The most ancient families here are the Mackenzies, Frasers,* Mackintoshes, Macdonalds, Grants, M'Leods, M'Phersons and Camerons.

Bamf-shire.—The principal towns in this shire are Bamf, Cullen, Frazerburg, and Keith. The most ancient families here are the Cummings, Gordons and Abercrombies. There is a cave in this county, where the water that drops from it turns into stone, as soon as it reaches the ground.

Murray-shire, or Nearne; the principal towns here are Elgin, Foress, Nearne, and Crommertie; the largest rivers are the Spey, Nearne, and Findorn, the first mentioned is the most rapid river in Europe. The most ancient families, here are, the Brodies, M'Intoshes, Roses, Dunbars, Grants, Stuarts, Frasers and M'Kenzies.

* The Frasers emigrated thither from France nine hundred and sixty years ago.

Argyle-shire is bounded on the north by Lochaber; on the east by Lenox; on the West by the ocean, and the firth of Clyde on the south. The principal towns in Argyle-shire are Inverary, Dunstaffnage and Cambletown. There are a number of rivers and lakes in this county; the principal lake is Lochfine, which is about sixty miles in length and four in breath: this loch is famous for the great quantity of excellent herring which are caught in it. Lochow is a fresh water loch, twenty-four miles long and one broad; in it there are twelve islands; and from this loch the family of Argyle had their ancient title of Lairds of Lochow. The most ancient families in this shire are the Campbells, Lamonds, Macdonalds, MacDougals, Macluaires, MacQueens, MacEuens and MacFarlanes.

Ross-shire, the principal town here is Tayn; the most ancient families in this shire are the M'Kenzies (who emigrated thither from Ireland in the fifth century) Munros, Rosses, Bethunes, and Dunbars.

Sutherland-shire, chief town here is Dornock.—Dunrobin castle, the principal seat of the Earl of Sutherland, is situated in this county, upon a mote near the sea. The most ancient families here are the Sutherlands, Mackays, Gordons, Glanguns or Gunns, Murrays and Grays. This county in general is fruitful in corn and pasturage; and abounds with fish, fowl, sheep, black cattle and deer. The vallies are very pleasant and well inhabited; and what proves the climate and soil to be much better than could be expected, from its northerly situation, is, that saffron grows very well here and comes to maturity. Here are many commodious harbours for exporting the commodities of the country, which are corn, salt, salmon, beef, wool, hides, butter, cheese, tallow, &c. All that tract of land lying between Portnecouter and Dunsbay, is called Caithness. The principal towns in Caithness are Weik and Thurso. At Dunsbay-head in the north east of Caithness is the ferry to Orkney.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

IRELAND.

Ireland, called also Hibernia and Erin, is situated to the west of Great-Britain; and for salubrity of air, fertility of soil, hospitality and intrepidity of its inhabitants, is excelled by no country on earth.

The pride of ancestry has a peculiar effect upon the Irish. No nation, in fact, now in existence, can boast of such certain and remote antiquity. It has been a mean and pitiful prejudice of some English, and other writers, to endeavour to throw discredit upon the early parts of the Irish history. That many fabulous accounts are to be met with in the Irish annals, is undoubtedly true; but the possession at this present hour of a *vernacular language*, which was in general use above three thousand years ago, is a strong coroboration of their ancient decent, that the people of Ireland can singly boast among all the nations of the universe.*

---

* The ingenious and learned colonel Vallancey has given an accurate collation of the Punic speeches with the Irish as now spoken. The curious reader will be gratified with the following specimen of this wonderful similarity, or rather identity, of the Phœnician and Irish languages.

Carthaginian.

Bythlym mothym nocto thij nelech thanti diasmachon.

Irish.

Beith liom! mo thyme noctaithe niel aitheanti

English.

Be with me! My real fears are unknown.

I am of opinion that the Erse spoken by the Scots Highlanders, and the Welsh, were originally the same with the Irish, from their great analogy therewith, having frequently conversed with Irishmen and Welshmen in their native tongue. During the prevalence of the yellow fever in the city of New-York in 1798, a vessel arrived here from Europe, with a number of passengers from Wales. Some of them landed near the State Prison. I happened to be present, among others, and conceiving them to be Irish, I spoke to one of them in the Irish tongue. He shook his head, signifying that he did not understand me. I then spoke to him in English, but he could not speak a word. Having given a sixpence to a little boy who was with him, he

There appears no reason to doubt that the ancestors of the Irish were Scythians; or, as they were afterwards called, Phœnicians. That the Carthaginians were a Phœnician colony, has never been doubted, and like other colonies they carried their language with them.

Besides the common use of the Phœnician language by the native Irish, there are other proofs, which make it no longer doubtful, that a Phœnician colony settled in Ireland. The warlike instruments which have been found in Ireland exactly resemble the weapons discovered about Caunæ, some of which are in the British Museum: the brazen swords and spears are the same form and substance, being a composition of brass and tin. Proofs of the similarity of habit, manners, and customs, between the colony and the mother country, might be adduced from the historians of each. Suffice it however to remark, that to this day the Irish peasants have an annual custom of lighting upon certain hills, on the eve of midsummer, what they still call Bel's fire, though totally ignorant that Bel was the God of their Phœnician ancestors.

All historians agree that hordes of Scythians emigrated to Egypt, and from thence to Spain; and there

---

thanked me in a way similar to what a Highland boy would have done on a like occasion. This induced me to address the father in Erse; he replied to me with seeming great joy: we made out to understand each other tolerably well, and when we parted, he remarked, that I must have left Wales when young, as I spoke Welsh very ill!

Being struck with this seeming affinity of the *Erse* and *Welsh* tongues, I obtained a translation of the following sentence into Welsh, by the reverend Mr. Williams, and into Erse, by Mr. John M'Intyre, of this city.

Welsh.

Bydd gida mi! mau fy ofnau widi ei dat giddio, nid oes genuff im diben arall ond gwaradigaeth fy merch.

Erse.

Bithiah leam! tha aover m'eagil follachadh, cha n'eil rune eil agam ach mo nigheanan chuanthaca.

English.

Be with me! my fears being discovered, I have no other intention but recovering my daughter.

has been no one objection of any force brought against the Irish annalists, who are unanimous in their assertions that a colony of these Scythians from Spain settled in Ireland. The Irish have always prided themselves upon having kept up a longer succession of monarchs than any other kingdom in the world. This race of kings they call Milesian, all of them having descended from Heber, Eremore, and Ith, the three sons of Milesius, who headed the expedition from Spain.

It is certain that Ireland was colonized by a civilized, a learned, and warlike people, nearly one thousand years before the birth of Christ: and that during that period they were characterized by their robust frame of body, by their valour, by their pride of ancestry, by the strength of their imagination, and their enthusiastic love of glory.

The obscurity, however, of this period ended with the introduction of Christianity; when a new set of historians or annalists sprang up, new repositories of learning were established, foreign connections were much extended, and the learned languages were brought into use. All respectable writers ancient and modern agree, that the gospel was first preached in Ireland by St. Patrick, who was sent thither with twenty other missionaries by Celestine bishop of Rome, in the fifth century of the Christian æra. Whether the facility with which the divine doctrines of the missionaries were propagated was, as some assert, in a great degree owing to the superior state of letters and other civil cultivation in Ireland, is now difficult to determine. The fact however is certain, that in no land did the Gospel make such rapid progress, or was so slightly opposed at its first introduction: and it is remarkable that within the short space of five years after St. Patrick had opened his mission, he was summoned to sit and assist in the convention or parliament of Tarah. He was appointed of the famous committee of Nine, to whom was entrusted the reform of the ancient civil history of the nation, so as to render it instructive to posterity.—

Christian schools and seminaries were established in opposition to those of the Druids; and Paganism declined in proportion as the institutions and doctrines of Christianity flourished; insomuch that from the fifth to the latter end of the ninth century the Irish nation was pre-eminently distinguished in Europe as the chief seat of literature and science. Venerable Bede not only confirms this fact, but states, that the youth of the most respectable families of every nation in Europe were sent to Ireland to receive their education, on account of the pre-excellence of the learning of the Irish clergy. The same writer adds, that such of the Anglo Saxons as went over to Ireland, either for education, improvement, or for an opportunity of living up to the strict ascetic discipline, were maintained, taught and furnished with books, without fee or reward. Several illustrious persons received their education there. Among the other virtues which the establishment of Christianity fostered and extended among the Irish, the generous spirit of hospitality, for which from the earliest periods they were characterised, was peculiarly enforced. "The most holy men of heaven," say the Irish laws, "were remarkable for hospitality; and the gospel commands us to receive the sojourner, to entertain him, and to relieve his wants." We have thus seen that the Irish were a people endowed with great powers of body and mind, lovers of the arts and sciences, and enthusiastic encouragers of talents, attached to religion and its ministers, and in a word, super-eminently gifted by nature with all those active principles of public virtue, which, if properly directed, insure the attainment of national happiness, prosperity, and importance. But unfortunately it has ever been the bane of Ireland to be distracted with civil discord.

The latter part of the Irish history, immediately preceding the invasion of the kingdom by the English, presents one continued scene of intestine dissention, turbulence, and faction. They experienced during several centuries, the miserable effects resulting from their want

of union among themselves, in the success of the repeated formidable invasions of their island by the Danes, Norwegians, and other Scandinavian adventurers, who roved about in search of settlements. Ireland became to these piratical hordes a most inviting object, as the country was fertile, and the inhabitants by their intestine divisions rendered feeble defenders of their soil. Such was the situation of Ireland, with little variation of feature in its history, during a period of nearly four hundred years. About the year of Christ 1166, Roderick O'Connor, of undoubted *Milesian* stock, was raised to the monarchy, with the general consent of the nation. His prospect of a happy reign was soon clouded by the revolt of several petty kings and princes who had sworn allegiance to him.

Scarcely had he reduced them to obedience, when he was called upon by O'Rourke, king of Breffny, to assist him in avenging himself of Dermod, king of Leinster, by whom he had been grossly injured. While O'Rourke was absent on a pilgrimage, his wife, who had long conceived a criminal passion for the king of Leinster, eloped with him, and lived in public adultery. There could not have existed a greater excitement to revenge in the breast of an Irish prince, whose spotless purity of blood was their highest glory. O'Rourke succeeded in rousing the monarch to avenge his cause, and immediately led a powerful force to his assistance. The whole kingdom took fire at the perfidy and iniquity of Dermod, who looked in vain for support from his own subjects. He was hated for his tyranny; and the chieftains of Leinster not only refused to enlist under his banner in such a cause, but openly renounced their allegiance. Dermod, thus deserted by his subjects, was inflamed with rage at the disappointment, and resolved to sacrifice every thing to the gratification of his personal revenge. Unable to meet the approaching storm, he took shipping secretly, and repaired to Henry II. of England, who was then in France, to solicit his protection and aid in accomplishing his revengeful intention.

Dermod made a most humiliating address, and canting hypocritical representation of his sufferings, to Henry, whom he found in Aquitaine; promising that if through his powerful interposition he should recover his lost dominions, he would hold them in vassalage of Henry and his successors forever. Such an offer accorded well with the ambitious views of the British monarch; but his situation at that time prevented him from engaging personally in the cause of the guilty fugitive. He, however, encouraged him by promises of vigorous support, and gave him letters of credit and service to such of his subjects as might be willing to assist him in the recovery of his dominions. With these credentials Dermod repaired to Bristol, which was in those days the chief port of communication between England and Ireland.

Invasion and Conquest of Ireland, under Henry II. in 1172.*

That Henry had conceived the design of invading Ireland previously to the degrading application of Dermod, is unquestionable. A very superficial knowledge of the state of Ireland at that period was sufficient to excite the ambition of a powerful and popular sovereign, in those days, when it was deemed reproachful to a prince to be unemployed in some scheme of gallant enterprize.

A pretence alone was wanting to give some colour of justice to the design; and the courtiers of Henry were fertile in their invention of imaginary claims to the throne of Ireland, which they asserted the kings of England possessed by inheritance from the time of Arthur, or even earlier.

At the period, however, of Dermod's application, Henry was engaged in suppressing the insurrection of

* Six hundred and thirty-five years ago.

his brother Geoffry, and in supporting his own claims to Anjou. He had a sufficient employment for his abilities in regulating his own affairs in England. The unsettled state of Wales at this period, and the long and painful contest which Henry maintained against Thomas Becket and the church, were additional motives to induce the ambitious monarch to suspend the execution of his designs against Ireland, which would probably never have been put in execution, had not accident, or rather the factions and competitions of an unorganised people, opened a way for the English arms to penetrate and subdue their distracted country. Henry, though invested with papal authority for the purpose, would perhaps never have invaded Ireland, had not the intestine broils of the Irish princes, or kings, as they were termed, severed those resources which ought to have been united for defence, and driven Dermod to invite that interference of a foreign power, which ever is, and must be fatal to the liberties and independence of a nation.

Such was the situation of Ireland, when Dermod proffered at the feet of the English monarch to hold his dominions in vassalage of him, and acknowledge him his liege lord, if by his means he should himself be reinstated in them. This flattering petition awakened the slumbering hopes of Henry, and revived the pleasing ideas which he had formerly conceived of conquering Ireland.

His own immediate affairs were, however, still much perplexed. Becket had then recently afforded him a further proof of his violence and obstinacy, while the insurrection of his subjects in the provinces of France, secretly fomented by Lewis, engaged him incessantly in war and negociation. It was therefore his obvious policy to act as he did, and to receive the proffered allegiance of the Irish prince in a gracious manner, to give him every encouragement and assurance short of his personal appearance in his cause, and to grant him those letters of licence and credence to his subjects in Eng-

land, who might be willing to adventure on an expedition against Ireland, under the banners of king Dermod. The fugitive prince, highly elated with his reception, repaired from Aquitaine to England, and upon his arrival at Bristol made public the letters of Henry, repeated his piteous story, and lavished promises upon all who would aid the friend and vassal of their sovereign. The cause or character of Dermod must, doubtless, have obtained a bad report in England, or such was the spirit of enterprise and adventure in these days, the days of the crusades, that but for such a reason, it may be presumed multitudes would have flocked to his standard, whereas not one individual was found to listen to his flattering promises, or to take arms in his cause.

A month elapsed without any prospect of obtaining succours, and Dermod began to abandon all hopes of restoration, when he was persuaded to address himself to Richard, earl of Pembroke, surnamed Strongbow, on account of his skill in archery. Richard was distinguished by his military genius as much as by his station and alliances: he was attended by a powerful train of followers, whose affection he had gained by his courtesy and generosity; but being estranged from the royal favour, and retired and unemployed, his fortune dissipated, his distresses urgent, and his prospects gloomy, he was pointed out to Dermod as likely to comply with his overtures, and the Irish prince accordingly pressed him with the most urgent solicitations. He even engaged to give him his daughter Eva in marriage, and to make him heir of his kingdom, though sensible by the ancient customs of his country he had no power to nominate his heirs. Richard was overcome by these seducing offers, and agreed to assist Dermod with a considerable force in the ensuing spring, provided he could obtain the king's particular license and approbation.

Elevated by the success of this negociation, Dermod conceived that he had already most effectually provided for his restoration; and proceeded to St. David's, in South Wales, intending to return privately to Ireland.

In Wales he added to his adherents, Robert Fitz-Stephen, an active, brave, and skilful soldier, who consented to engage, with all his followers, in the service of Dermod, who, on his part, promised to cede to Fitz-Stephen and Maurice Fitzgerald, the entire dominion of the town of Wexford, with a large adjoining territory, as soon as he should be reinstated in his rights. Such was the origin of an invasion, which in the event proved of so great importance. A criminal and despised fugitive, driven from his province by faction and revenge, obtained in this manner the assistance of a few adventurers in Wales, whom youthful valour, and ruined fortune, led to seek for advantageous settlements in Ireland. In the mean time Dermod embarked in disguise for Ireland, where he landed in safety; and, passing through the quarters of his enemies, spent the winter in the monastry at Ferns, which he himself had founded. Here he occupied himself in preparations for the intended invasion in the ensuing spring, when the promised succours were to be sent from England. They did arrive, and, after various turns of fortune, Dermod was reinstated in his ancient rights.

The British forces employed in this expedition have been variously stated; but the largest number named is three thousand, including the adherents of Dermod, who joined them after their landing. This force has been represented by some writers in such formidable colours as if nothing in Ireland could stand against it; but experience has sufficiently evinced the incalculable advantages of discipline over strength and valour. The Irish nation did not in fact oppose this invasion; but separate septs or families made each a separate resistance, and their divided efforts were of course of no avail. It is also well authenticated that several chiefs sent over deputies to invite Henry to Ireland: the men of Wexford, O'Bryan of Thomond, and all the inferior chiefs of Munster, vied with each other in the alacrity of their submission. Henry, jealous of the successful progress of his own subjects, sent orders to recall all the Eng-

lish, and made preparations to attack Ireland in person (1172.) He at length landed in that Island at the head of five hundred knights besides other soldiers; but so dispirited were the Irish, that in his progress he had nothing more to do than to receive the homage of his new subjects. He left most of the native princes in possession of their territories, invested the earl of Pembroke with the government of Ireland, and returned in triumph to England Yet notwithstanding the apparent submission which the English monarch had received in all parts of Ireland, he had not by his expedition won one heart to his interest, or added one true and loyal subject to the number of those whom he found there on his landing.

The Irish chieftains waited only for a favourable opportunity of openly disavowing their submission; and when the earl of Pembroke retired into Ferns to solemnize the marriage of his daughter, they threw off all show of allegiance to Henry, and boldly denounced vengeance against the invaders.

To give an account of the succeeding periods of the History of Ireland, or to trace the origin and progress of the last unhappy occurrences in that country, does not comport with the brevity of our plan.

A concise account of the principal Towns, Rivers, &c. in Ireland.

Ireland is divided into four grand divisions, namely, Leinster, Ulster, Connaught and Munster; and sub-divided into thirty-two counties, twelve of which are in Leinster. Dublin County, principal city Dublin, the metropolis of Ireland; and is the largest town in the British dominions, London excepted. It is said to contain upwards of two hundred thousand inhabitants. And is situated nearly seven miles from the sea, at the foot of a spacious bay, on the river Liffey.

Louth, chief town Drogheda; Wicklow, chief town Wicklow; Wexford, principal town Wexford; Longford, chief town Longford; East-Meath, chief town

Trim; West-Meath, most populous town Mullingar; King's-County, Philips-town is the principal; Queen's-County, chief town is Maryborough; Kilkenny, principal town of the same name; Kildare, chief town Naas; and Carlow, most populous town of the same name.

Ulster, contains nine counties: Down, principal town Down Patrick; Armagh, head town of same name; Cavan, chief town of the same name; Antrim, Carrick Fergus; Londonderry, chief town Derry; Tyrone, head town Omagh; Fermanagh, head town Enniskillen, and Donegal, principal town Lifford.

Connaught has five counties, namely, Leitrim, chief town Carrick; Roscommon, head town of the same name; Mayo, chief towns Castlebar and Ballinrode; Sligo, head town bears the same name; Gallow, head town Gallow.

Munster, has six counties; Clare, head town Ednis; Cork, principal town Cork. The city of Cork lies about one hundred and thirty miles south-west from Dublin on the banks of the river Lee, and for population, wealth and commerce is reckoned the second in Ireland. The county of Kerry. head town Tralee; Limerick, chief town of the same name; Tipperary, head town Clonmell; Waterford, chief town of the same name. Waterford is a town of very considerable trade, and a place of great strength. Belfast, Limerick and Londonderry are handsome towns and carry on a considerable trade. This country abounds with charming lakes, spacious bays and excellent harbours; the Shannon is the largest river in Ireland, and runs a course of 150 miles from its source, at Lough Allen in Leitrim, till it falls into the atlantic ocean at Kerrypoint; the other rivers here are the Boyne, the Liffee, the Ban, the Barrow, the Nore and the Suin.

The nobility and most wealthy class of people in Ireland in their language, dress and manners cannot be said to differ, but very little, if any, from those of the same rank in England. The poorer sort of people in Ireland

differ something in their mode of living and customs from the lower class of people in England.

Some writers have erroneously asserted, that the best informed people in Ireland always retain a disagreeable tone in their pronunciation. This I know from personal observation, to be ill-founded, having conversed with gentlemen from that country who, in my humble opinion, pronounced the English language with great accuracy. Indeed, the author of the English standard of pronunciation, Mr. Sheridan, was an Irishman. I am not a native of Ireland, and therefore cannot justly be supposed to be over partial to that nation; yet I was sorry to meet with the following invidious remark in a book which has, in a few years, passed through thirteen editions in Europe and America: "The common Irish, in their manner of living, seem to resemble the ancient Britons, as described by Roman authors, or the present Indian inhabitants of America!!" Hence, according to this writer's opinion, the difference betwixt the higher and lower class of the Irish people, must be vastly great indeed! Since, among the former, we find an archbishop Usher, a Boyle, a dean Swift, an O'Leary, a Steele, a Sterne, a Parnel, a Goldsmith, a Berkley, a Grattan, a Montgomery, &c. While the lower class of people in Ireland are represented to be no more refined at the present day, than the Britons were two thousand years ago, or the tawny sons of the Birdtail king among the Cherokees, or the Little Turkie's tribe among the Mohawks. And yet we are told by the learned Mr. Camden (who was not an Irishman) that "the Irish scholars of St. Patrick profited so nobly in Christianity, that in the succeeding age, Ireland was termed Sanctorum Patria. Their monks so greatly excelled in piety and learning, that they sent a number of learned men into all parts of Europe, who were the founders of Abbies in Italy, Switzerland, France and Britain." Bede says, that about the middle of the seventh century, many nobles and others of the Anglo-Saxons, retired from their own country and

went to Ireland for instruction, and that the Scots (as he styles the Irish) maintained them, taught them and furnished them with books gratis—"A most honorable testimony, says Lord Lyttleton, not only of the learning but also of the hospitality and bounty of the Irish nation."

Dr. Mavor thus concludes his history of Ireland.

The benefits of a political union of Ireland with Great Britain (which we sincerely hope may be perfectly realized) have been so admirably well depicted by the bishop of Landaff, that we cannot better describe them than in the words of the learned prelate in a debate in the house of Lords, on this important topic.

"It would enrish Ireland, and would not impoverish Great Britain. The consolidation of Ireland with this country would render it the strongest empire in Europe.

Ireland, (he further observed) as a shoot from the stem of Great-Britain, has brought forth fruit: but that as a separate plant it would neither strike its root downwards, nor spread its branches above: it would bear no fruit for at least a hundred years. It must either be shaded by the British oak, or it must be poisoned by the pestilential vapor of the tree of French liberty. Ireland could not stand alone. In the present state of Europe, she must be united either to England or France. English capital would, in the event of union, seek employment in Ireland, and diffuse improvement and wealth. The bogs would be converted into fruitful fields, the barren mountains covered with cattle, the old sources of wealth would be extended, new ones discovered, and the inhabitants be rendered rich, industrious, and happy."

Coinciding, as we sincerely do, with this most eloquent elucidation of the union, it is with pleasure we add to this just picture of the right reverend prelate, the sanction of a nobleman to the union, whose opinion on all subjects is of infinite weight, but upon the con-

cerns of Ireland, is, perhaps, preponderant to any in the British dominions, on account of his extensive and intimate knowledge of that part of the empire, as well as the sound wisdom and unimpeachable integrity which are his characteristics. The earl of Moira declared, that his early objections to the union were in a great measure removed by the late determination of the Irish parliament; *and he was ready to admit, that the points of detail were founded, for the most part, on just and equitable principles.*

With such an exalted testimony of the justice of the execution of this great national measure, and with such a display of its general advantages, we conclude this history of Ireland. In reviewing the annals of this brave and generous people, if we have erred, it has not been from motives of partiality to any party or to any sect. It is indeed to be lamented, that the sacred cause of religion should be ever alluded to for any other purpose than the furtherance of piety and virtue; for the dissemination among men of those duties which they owe to their Creator and their fellow creatures. May the happy event of a political union between Great-Britain and Ireland, which commenced with the nineteenth century, continue for countless centuries, unbroken by faction or disloyalty, a most noble monument to the world at large, of the blessings resulting from a true and loyal union of civilized brethren, enjoying the benefits of rational freedom, on the basis of a constitution, which wisdom and virtue have consolidated, and which genuine patriotism defends."

RELIGION.—The established religion and ecclesiastical dicipline of Ireland is the same with that of England: But, four-fifths of the people are said to be Roman catholics. There are, besides, a number of Presbyterians, Baptists, Quakers and Methodists, who are all tolerated.

GOVERNMENT.—As Ireland is subordinate to England, the government of it is much the same. The king sends a viceroy, who is styled lord-lieutenant; and who

comes as near the grandeur and dignity of a king, as any viceroy in the world. The parliament of Ireland previous to the union of that country with England was convened, prorogued, and dissolved at the pleasure of the king, and the laws made by the parliament were sent to England for the king's approbation!

CHAPTER XXIX.

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

The English, conducted by John Cabot, in the year 1497, (although the discovery has generally, but erroneously, been attributed to his second son, Sabastian, who at that time could not have been more than twenty years of age) found the way to North-America soon after Columbus had successfully crossed the Atlantic; but as the torrents in that country brought down no gold, and the Indians were not bedecked with any costly ornaments, no attempts were made to explore the country for near a century after its dicovery. Sir Francis Drake, who traversed the whole circumference of the globe in one voyage, and in one ship, A. D. 1577, &c. which had never been achieved before, when afterwards annoying the Spaniards in the West-Indies, and on the main, gained some knowledge of the eastern shore of the northern continent, as he had before of the western parts on the Pacific Ocean, about the same parallel. Sir Walter Raleigh, however, was the first navigator who explored the coast, bestowed on it a name, and attempted to settle a colony, A. D. 1584; but the lands were overspread with thick woods, the caprices of a savage race were to be soothed, their jealousies of new settlers to be removed, or their power to be opposed; and, when all these difficulties should be surmounted, the colonists must continue subject to the first condemnatory sentence denounced on the human race, "by the sweat of their brow to eat their bread."

At that time colonization made no part of the system of government, so that there were few stimulants to abandon a native soil for the purpose of seeking possessions in another hemisphere. At length a powerful incentive arose, stronger than the influence of kings, than the love of ease, than the dread of misery. Religion, which had long been converted into the most powerful engine which human subtilty ever made use of to subjugate the mass of mankind, no sooner ceased to be so perverted, than by its own proper force it impelled large bodies of people to renounce every present enjoyment, the instinctive love of a native soil, rooted habits, and dearest connections, and to settle in the dreary wilds of a far distant continent.

When England, by a very singular concurrence of circumstances, threw off the papal yoke, state policy so predominated in the measure, that the consciences of men were still required to bend to the discipline, conform to the ceremonials, and assent to the doctrines which the governing powers established. Although a dissent from the church of Rome was considered as meritorious, yet a dissent from the church of England was held to be heretical, and an offence to be punished by the civil magistrate. The human mind, somewhat awakened from a long suspension of its powers by a Wickcliffe, farther enlightened by an Erasmus and Melancthon, and at length called forth into energy by the collision of those two ardent and daring spirits, Luther and Calvin, then began to bend all its attention toward religious enquiries, and exercised all its powers in such pursuits. Hence arose a vast diversity of opinions, which gave rise to numerous sects and denominations of Christians; but as the Protestant establishment in England held it essential to preserve a unity of faith, those novel opinions obtained no more quarter there than under papal power.

The eastern coast of North America, comprehending a vast extent of country, was considered as of right belonging to England, and was then known by no other

names than those of North and South Virginia, which it had received from Sir Walter Raleigh. The persecuted and desperate religionists easily obtained a royal grant of a very extensive tract of land, whither they repaired, not to amass wealth, or to exterminate the inhabitants, but to subsist by industry, to purchase security by honorable intercourse with the natives, and to acquire strength under the auspices of freedom. The establishment made by the quakers, under the conduct of Penn, realized these professions; in other parts a spirit of intolerance too much prevailed, and insidious arts were practised on the Indians, which soon excited rancorous animosity in those tribes. The Spaniards had found the southern division of this vast continent peopled with a pusillanimous and defenceless race of men, whom they sacrificed without scruple or remorse to their ambition and avarice; the European settlers on the coast of North-America were not actuated by such a cruel and exterminating spirit; they had juster notions of the rights of man: they also found the inhabitants of that country possessing very different characteristics, less numerous indeed than toward the south, but subsisting by hunting, expert in the use of offensive weapons, sagacious, persevering, not insensible of kindnesses conferred, but implacable when offended, and ever gratifying their revenge by means the most artful, concealed, and cruel. An acquaintance with Europeans has ever been baneful to uncivilized communities in all parts of the globe. These Indians soon discovered a fondness for spirituous liquors, with which the artful traders were too ready to supply them; by the excessive use of these, their natural ferocity had been increased, their passions inflamed, their best principles perverted, diseases never before known introduced, their lives shortened, and their numbers rapidly reduced.

The attention and assistance which Great-Britain gave to these colonies increased with the increasing commercial spirit of the nation; indeed the English Americans may be said to have been, like Minerva, born adult: no

age of barbarism involved in obscurity and ignorance the early period of their existence. Arts and sciences were cultivated ere their woods were cleared; their minds were enlarged without their manners being depraved. The fostering hand of Great-Britain nursed the rising genius of the colonies, and an immense expanse of country taught them to contemplate on futurity with exultation. Their towns were built far from the din of war; their people had multiplied amidst the blessings of peace; their situation and employments rendered them robust and enterprising, without becoming sanguinary. The inroads of the Indians, those aborigines, whose territory they had in most instances rather seized upon than honorably purchased, were confined to their back settlements, and served to keep them attentive without endangering the general safety. The apprehensions from the encroachments of the French were dispelled soon after they had been seriously entertained, and the fortunate termination of that four years conflict served to teach them to value a security which then became permanent. Civil commotions and intestine wars have stained with blood every kingdom and state, both in ancient and modern times: the Americans were not to expect an exemption from the common lot of humanity; and the time at length arrived, when the horrors and desolations of war were to overspread the country.

Perhaps no event in the history of the world has been more important than the revolution in America, which the contentions between the mother country and the colonies produced, by the erection of so many independent, but confederate republics on that continent. The pursuits of America must now be directed to different objects. Whilst colonists, they were perhaps become too much a commercial people; as states, agriculture will demand their first and chief attention. The immense country to the westward is now likely to be brought much sooner into a state of cultivation than if they had continued colonies; population may be expect-

ed to advance in a proportion hitherto unknown; and, among a people enjoying such advantages, the human mind ought to be exercised, and its powers enlarged, without being depraved; simplicity of manners, uncontaminated by the impatience of becoming rich, should prevail; and the favoured Americans be known as a people exemplary for integrity in their dealings, for honour, and public virtue.

BOUNDARIES.] By the definitive treaty of peace between the king of Great Britain and the United States of America, which was executed at Paris, on the 3d of September, 1783, the boundaries of these states are fixed to extend on the N. from Nova-Scotia, across the four great lakes of Ontario, Eric, Huron, and Superior, assigning to the states the southern half of each, and in the latter the islands Royal and Phillipeaux: lake Michigan they possess entire: though these lakes have ever been considered as making a part of Canada, and no new regulation of limits has excluded them. This boundary is farther extended through the centre of the lake of the Woods to its most western point. It may be supposed that a want of acquaintance with the geography of the country has caused it to be added "from thence on a due West course to the river Mississippi:" for if the boundary is carried due West, it will reach the Pacific Ocean, about one degree of latitude South of Nootka Sound. The line, in order to touch the Mississippi, should have been carried from the western side of the lake of the Woods due South. In consequence of this inaccuracy no boundary is settled throughout a space of near three degrees of latitude; it being resumed along the middle of the river Mississippi to thirty-one degrees North latitude, where that river begins to divide West Florida from Louisiana. The American States are bounded on the South by the two Floridas. They possess all the eastern coast from the mouth of the river St. Croix, in the bay of Fundy, to St. Mary's river, which divides Georgia from East Florida,

and all islands within twenty leagues of any part of the shore.

The states with whom the king of Great-Britain concluded this treaty, were, New-Hampshire, Massachusetts-Bay, Rhode-Island with Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North-Carolina, South-Carolina, and Georgia.

These states, in their fullest extent, comprise eighteen degrees of latitude, and thirty-three degrees of longitude; they are described as being 1250 miles in length, and 1030 in breadth: reaching from thirty-one degrees to forty-nine degrees North latitude, and from fifty-one degrees to eighty-four degrees West longitude from Greenwich; but as the Americans have fixed their meridian at the city of Philadelphia, the extent in longitude from that city is, from nine degrees East to twenty-four degrees West.

Although the longitudinal extent is laid down to be nearly double to the latitudinal, yet the limits are so intersected on the northward, that toward the N. W. coast it lies in forty-five degrees, except a small district of land, which reaches to almost forty-seven degrees; but in the interior country, on lake Erie, the boundary is on forty-two degrees: its greatest extent is on the coast, toward the N. E. where only it is 49 degrees. Its longitudinal extent, from New England on the E. to a little below Nootka Sound on the W. comprehends the whole continental breadth, from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean; and it is only in that part that its breadth is 1030 miles.

Mr. Hutchins, the late geographer of the United States, computed that the surface contained within the boundaries so described, is one million of square miles, which comprehends six hundred and forty millions of acres; and he computes that of these, forty-one millions are water, or about two twenty-fifth parts of the whole: so that the land within the United States amounts to five hundred and eighty-nine millions of acres; about

three-fifths of which is comprised within the states which now compose the union; the remaining two hundred and twenty millions of acres, which lie West of the northern and middle states, and N. W. of the river Ohio, and extend to the river Mississippi, together with an extensive territory South of the Ohio, originally ceded to the United States by North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, form what is usually denominated "the western territory."

GOVERNMENT.—A general Congress was first held at Philadelphia, in September 1774, and was composed of delegates chosen by the houses of representatives of each of the twelve old colonies; Georgia alone being unrepresented in that assembly, but it afterwards acceded, and the number of members then amounted to fifty-four, and a president; two years after, the number was reduced to forty-eight. In this assembly each colony had no more than a single voice, whether its deputation was more or less numerous: so that a contrariety of opinion among the deputies from any particular colony, if the majority were in favour of the measure, did not occasion a dissenting voice in the congress; the sense of any colony could not be taken if its deputies were equally divided in their opinions: which was likely frequently to occur, as seven of the colonies sent either two or four deputies; the other five were represented by three, five, seven, or nine.

In the year 1776 Congress, by a solemn act, renounced allegiance to the king of Great Britain, and declared the American colonies to be Independent States. In March, 1781, articles of confederation were ratified; and the style of the confederation was settled to be "United States of America."

The old confederation was essentially defective, being destitute of almost every principle necessary to give effect to legislation.

In the month of May, A. D. 1787, delegates from all the states, except Rhode-Island, assembled at Philadel-

phia, called the general convention, and chose general Washington president. After four months deliberation, the convention agreed to recommend the plan of a federal government.

As soon as the *federal constitution* was submitted to the legislatures of the several states, they proceeded to take measures for collecting the sense of the people upon the propriety of adopting it. In 1789, it was ratified by the conventions of eleven of the original thirteen states; and shortly after North Carolina and Rhode-Island acceded to the union.

The constitution having been ratified by the states and senators, and representatives having been chosen agreeably to the articles of it, they met at New-York, and commenced their proceedings. The old congress and confederation expired, and a new one, with more ample powers, and a new constitution, partly national, and partly federal, succeeded in their place, to the great joy of all who wished for the happiness of the United States.

Though great diversity of opinions had prevailed about the new constitution, there was but one opinion about the person who should be appointed its supreme executive officer. All parties turned their eyes on the late commander of their armies, as the most proper person to be their first president. Unambitious of farther honours, he had retired to a farm in Virginia, and hoped to be excused from all future public services. However, that honest zeal for the public good that had uniformly influenced him, overcame his love of retirement, and induced him to undertake the office.

The intelligence of his election being communicated to him, while on his *farm*, like the great Cincinnatus of old, he set out for New-York. A day was fixed, soon after his arrival, for taking the oath of office, which was in the following words: "I do solemnly swear, that I will faithfully discharge the duties of the office of president of the United States; and will, to the best of

my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the constitution of the United States." The oath was administered by the honourable Robert R. Livingston, chancellor of the state of New-York. An awful silence prevailed among the spectators during this part of the ceremony. It was a minute of the most sublime political joy. The chancellor then proclaimed him president of the United States. John Adams was at the same time elected vice-president.

There is nothing more striking in the whole character of general Washington, and which distinguishes him from other extraordinary men, than the circumstances which attended his promotion and retreat from office. He eagerly courted privacy, and only *submitted* to exercise authority as a public duty. The promotion of many men is a triumph of ambition over virtue. The promotion, even of good men, has generally been sought by them from motives that were very much mixed. The promotion of Washington, almost alone, seems to have been a victory gained by his conscience over his inclination. To despise what most other men eagerly hunt for, and to shew himself equal to the highest places, without ever seeking any, were the peculiar characteristics of this truly great man.

Events occurred during his chief magistracy which convulsed the whole political world, and which severely tried his moderation and prudence. The French revolution took place; and it was during its most turbulent period, when the people of all countries were divided into parties, that Washington was a second time chosen president of the United States, A. D. 1792, but not unanimously, as in the former instance. The disposition which he had shewn to take no part in favour of the perpetual changes in France, had created him enemies among those who espoused the cause of the French as the cause of mankind. He had, however, a decided majority; and the honourable John Adams was again elected vice-president.

In Oct. 1796, president Washington publicly announced his resolution of retiring from public life. The resignation of this great man at this period was deplored by all the moderate party in America, and by the government party in Great-Britain. By the latter he was considered as a steady friend; and was indeed regarded as the leader of what was called the English party in America. Such are the vicisitudes of political connections. In 1776, he was considered in England as a proscribed rebel: in 1796 he was regarded as the best friend that the English had in the United States. In 1776 his destruction was thought the only means of preserving America to Great-Britain; in 1796 his authority was esteemed the principal security against her falling under the yoke of France. At the former period he looked to the aid of France as his only hope of guarding the liberties of America against England; at the latter he must have considered the power of Great-Britain as the main barrier of the safety of America against France.

The election of the first successor to President Washington was the most important event in the history of the infant republic. Nothing could be conducted in a more dignified manner: the choice fell upon John Adams as President, and upon Thomas Jefferson as Vice-President (A. D. 1797.) The functions of the new president were to commence the 4th of March, previous to which he repaired to the house of representatives to take the necessary oaths. At this ceremony were a multitude of spectators of high rank; one of whom, after minutely describing all that passed, adds these words: "Nothing can be more simple than the ceremony of this installation; but this very simplicity has something in it so delightful, so noble, and so nearly resembling the grandeur of antiquity, that it commands our reverence, and seizes on our worthiest affections. I speak at least of the effect it produced on my feelings. This change of the Persons exercising the most awful functions of the state, with so little pomp, but with so great solemnity; and which places a man, who the

evening before was among the crowd of simple citizens, at the head of the government; while he who held the first office of the state the preceding evening, is returned again to the class of simple citizens—is full of the qualities that constitute true greatness."*

After various and repeated insults from the French government (in A. D. 1798) the United States found it necessary to arm in their own defence. They had for years endured with a patience of which there is scarcely any example in the history of states, all the contumely and wrongs which successive administrations in France had heaped upon them. Their ships were every where captured; their ministers were but prisoners at Paris; while agents, some of whom were indeed clothed in the sacred character of ambassador, had endeavored to excite in America the seeds of civil war. The United States resolved to arm by land and by sea. The command of the army was bestowed on General Washington, which he accepted because he said he was convinced "that every thing they held dear and sacred was threatened; though he had flattered himself that he had quitted for ever the boundless field of public action, incessant trouble, and high responsibility in which he had so long acted so conspicuous a part." In this office he continued the short period of his life. On the 12th day of December, 1799, he was seized with an inflammation in his throat; which terminated his valuable life in two days, in the 68th year of his age and in the 23d year of American Independence; of which he may justly be regarded as the founder. He died fully impressed with those sentiments of piety which had given vigour and consistency to his virtue, and had adorned every part of a life blameless and illustrious.

In 1801, came on the election for a new President of the United States, and Thomas Jefferson was elected President, and Aaron Burr Vice-President. The

---

* Duke de la Rochefaucault Liancourt.

next election took place 1804, when Thomas Jefferson was elected President, and George Clinton Vice-President,

At the time of the completion of the new constitution, and the first sitting of the new congress in 1789, the union consisted of no more than thirteen States; but since that period seven others have been added, in the manner prescribed by the Constitution. Kentucky, which was formerly a part of the state of Virginia; Vermont which was a part of New-Hampshire, were raised into states in the year 1791: and in 1796 Tennesse, formerly a part of North Carolina, was admitted as an independent state. Since that period the Maine, the territory north-west of Ohio, the Indian territory, and Mississippi territory, have been recognized as states belonging to the federal government; and in 1803, Louisiana was ceded by Spain to the United States of America for fifteen millions of Dollars. Louisiana was discovered by *Juan Ponte de Leon* in 1512; it afterwards came into the possession of the French, who about the middle of the last century claimed and possessed, as Louisiana, all that part of the new continent which was bounded on the south by the Gulf of Mexico, on the north by Canada, and on the east and west indefinitely, comprehending a greater extent than the United States.

The new system of Republican government in these states, secures to individuals two important privileges; the security of their persons and property by the habeas corpus act, and trial by jury. It unites the respective states of the union in a much closer confederation than the helvetic union brought the Swiss Cantons, or even the compact which united the seven united provinces of the Netherlands, formerly: In many important points, it may be justly said, to be such a form of government as the world had not before seen.

The president, the senate and house of representatives, form the executive and legislative body.

No specific portion of property, whether real or personal, is required to be possessed as a qualification for a representative, a senator, or president: nor is any one excluded on account of the religious principles which he professes; Jews, and Roman Catholics, are as eligible as any other class of citizens. The house of representatives is chosen every two years by the people of the several states; every person who has resided for six months in any county, rented a tenement worth forty shillings per annum, and paid taxes, is qualified to vote for a delegate to Congress. The only legal requisites in a candidate are, his having attained twenty-five years of age; having been seven years a citizen of the United States; and at the time of his election, an inhabitant of the state by which he is chosen. The holding any place of honour or emolument, is an absolute disqualification. In this representation, there is no distinction of knights, citizens, and burgesses, it not being made out of counties, cities, and borrough-towns; for exclusive rights and peculiar privileges of corporations (as in England, and elsewhere) are unknown in the United States.

The design of the federal constitution is, that the number of representatives in congress shall not exceed one to every thirty thousand, but that each state shall have at least one representative.

The senate of the United States is composed of two senators from each state, chosen, not from the people at large, but from the legislatures of the several states. No one can be chosen a senator who has not attained thirty years of age, who has not been nine years a citizen, and is not a resident of the state where he is chosen: he cannot hold any place of honor, trust, or profit. These senators, when assembled, are to be divided into three classes; those of the first class shall vacate their seats at the expiration of the second year; those of the second class, at the end of the fourth year, and of the third class, at the expiration of the sixth year.

The President of the United States, in whom is vested the executive power, and who must not be under thirty-five years of age, is chosen by the nomination of each state, which, for this purpose names two, and the person upon whom the largest number of suffrages falls obtains this rank, which is held for four years. In like manner the Vice-President is to be elected, and for the same term.* The latter is president of the senate. All the officers of the federal government are to be paid for their services at a rate to be settled by law, and out of the treasury of the United States.

The most effectual precautions have been adopted by the patriotic and judicious framers of the federal constitution, to repress the spirit of ambition, and views of aggrandizement, inherent in human nature, by every individual being chosen for a short term, from his being inhibited from enjoying any kind of post, or receiving, without permission, any kind of present.

RELIGION.—Every person in this country enjoys the fullest privilege of following that manner of worship, which he deems most acceptable to the Deity.

The population of the United States at present is six millions,† of this number five millions two hundred and fifty thousand are employed in cultivating the Soil.—The remaining seven hundred fifty thousand persons reside in cities or pursue avocations other than agricultural. Of this last number five hundred thousand are mechanics or artificers. The remaining two hundred and fifty thousand persons are supported by trade, by exercise of learned professions, by independent fortunes, and avocations neither agricultural or mechanical.

---

* Those highly distinguished offices are at present filled by Thomas Jefferson and George Clinton.

† Upwards of half a million of whom are slaves, or black people!!—But, to the honour of the two countries, and the great satisfaction of all the friends of humanity, the nefarious traffic in human flesh, is now wisely abolished by the American and British governments; the act of abolition to be carried into effect after a certain period of time, which is now nearly elapsed.

According to a statement of the Secretary of the treasury, the following foreign goods are annually consumed in the United States, viz.

	Dollars.
Rum, - - - -	5,992,000
Wines, - - - -	1,859,000
Salt, - - - -	1,500,000
Teas, - - - -	1,256,000
Sugar, coffee, and molasses, -	4,900,000
All other articles, dry goods, &c. &c.	40,000,000
Total,	55,507,000

CHAPTER XXX.

ABYSSINIA.

The empire of Abyssinia is indifferently called Abyssinia, Abasi, or Habessinia, from the Arabic Herbesh, which signifies a mixture, the country being peopled by various nations; but the inhabitants themselves call it Itjopia, or Ethiopia. It has also been known, though absurdly, by the name of Prester John's country. It extends from thirty-two degrees to forty-five degrees E. longitude, and from seven degrees twenty minutes to about sixteen degrees N. latitude. It is bounded on the north by the kingdom of Nubia; on the E. by Azamia, and a vast chain of mountains which separate it from the Red Sea; on the S. it is bounded by Alaba, called by Mr. Bruce, Galla; and on the W. by parts little known.

The Abyssinian empire appears to have been from its first foundation entirely despotic; and, according to their annals, there never was a period of time since its first origin, when the princes of this country did not claim an absolute right over the lives, liberty, and fortunes of their subjects, as well as an uncontrolable au-

thority in all ecclesiastical affairs; and it is not known, that there ever were any written laws to restrain this exorbitant power, or secure the liberties of the subject.

These princes boast their being descended from Mentlehech, the son of Solomon, king of Israel, by the queen of Sheba. According to them this princess reigned twenty-five years after her return from Judea, and was succeeded by this son, from whom descended a series of princes in a direct line down to the year nine hundred and sixty, when the crown passed into another family, but was afterwards restored to the former. Hence the emperor still retains the pompous titles of "the Beloved of God," "Son of the Pillar of Zion," "Kinsman to the race of Judah," "Son of David and Solomon," and "Emperor of the Great and high Ethiopia, its kingdoms and provinces," &c. They also bear in their arms a lion holding a cross, with this inscription in the Ethiopic tongue, "the lion of the tribe of Judah is victorious."

The respect paid to this prince amounts almost to adoration; those who are admitted to his presence fall prostrate before him, and kiss the earth as they approach his person; and it is said, that even in his absence, they never hear his name mentioned without bowing very low, and touching the ground with their hand. The other marks of grandeur chiefly consist in the retinue with which he is attended; for he is not only accompanied by his own household and guards, which are very numerous, but by all the grandees and officers of the empire, who strive to outvie each other in the greatness and splendour of their retinue, in the richness of their dress, and the magnificence of their pavilions.

Since the time that these accounts were written, the empire has been greatly weakened by long and fierce intestine commotions, and the grandeur of the emperor consequently much diminished; but Mr. Bruce gives the following instances of his despotic power, and of the servile homage which is paid to him. It is death to strike, or lift the hand to strike in the king's presence.

Travels, IV. 70. Sitting on the king's saddle, or in his seat at Gondar, is high treason. III. 586. In all places where a governor is invested with supreme power, it is customary to have an arm-chair left empty in the middle of the hall where justice is administered, which represents the sovereign, and to which obeisance is made. IV. 357.

There is an officer named Kal Hatze who sits always upon the steps, at the side of the lattice window, where there is a hole, covered in the inside with a curtain of green taffeta: behind this curtain the king sits, and through the hole sends, by this officer, what he has to say to the board, who arise, and receive the messenger standing. *Travels*, IV. 76.

When the king was marching with his army, the Shum or lord of a district through which he passed and his son were both hanged, because a branch of a tree which reached across a piece of water had taken off the king's cap, and left him bare-headed. IV. 66.

Although the crown of Abyssinia is hereditary, and must be preserved in the same family; yet the emperor, if he pleases, may choose any one of his children whom he thinks most worthy to succeed him. This probably gave birth to the severe custom, formerly observed in this empire, of confining all the princes of the blood to the fortress, or rock, called Ambageuxen, which some have described as a severe and disagreeable place of confinement, on the summit of a lofty mountain; while others represent it as an earthly paradise, in which these princes enjoyed every blessing except liberty, and were educated in a manner suitable to their birth. This custom, according to Lobo, was established in the year 1260, and had been abolished some time when he was in the empire. From it the late Dr. Johnson founded his pleasing romance of Rasselas.

The Abyssinian monarchs, like their ancient progenitor Solomon, king of the Jews, allow themselves a plurality of wives; and not only imitate him in that, but in taking those of different religions, even Mahomedans

and Gentiles; and some have carried this so far, as to allow their heathen wives to have their own temples and idols; so that on one side might be seen the church of God, and on the other a pagan temple. Others, however, have had so much regard to their religion, as to cause those Pagan or Mahomedan ladies to be instructed and baptized before they married them. The generality of these princes, however, choose to marry the daughters of noble families among their subjects; while others pay a greater regard to the natural endowments of the mind, or the beauty of the person, than to their noble extraction.

It was formerly the custom for the emperors never to appear in public, and they were seldom known to trouble themselves with the affairs of government, the care of which was committed to two ministers, called babluded, or favourites: but this custom has been long abolished, and they shew themselves to their subjects at least three or four times a year, though none is allowed to see them eat, except the pages who feed them, for both they and all the great have their meat cut into small pieces and conveyed to their mouths by young pages. When they give audience to foreign ambassadors, they alwayssit out of sight behind the curtain.

Notwithstanding the despotic power which prevails in Abyssinia, and no less in Nubia, yet the king of Sennaar, a country between them, possesses his sovereignty, subject to a condition which renders him entirely at the mercy of his nobles; and yet the first title of nobility in the country is that of slave; "there is indeed," says Mr. Bruce, "no other. Upon any appearance of your undervaluing a man at Sennaar, he instantly asks you, if you know who he is? If you do not know he is a slave? with the same idea of aristocratical importance, as would be expresed in England, upon a like occasion, Do you know to whom you are speaking? Do you know that I am a peer? All titles and dignities are undervalued and precarious, unles they are in the hands

of one that is a slave; slavery in Sennaar is the only true nobility." IV. 459.

The restriction alluded to above, under which the king of Sennaar reigns, is as follows: when a king ascends the throne, he receives his dignity upon this express condition, that he may be lawfully put to death by his own subjects or slaves, upon a council being held by the great officers, and they decreeing that it is not for the advantage of the state that he should be suffered to reign any longer. There is one officer of his own family, who alone can be the instrument of shedding his sovereign's and kinsman's blood: this officer is called *Sid el Coom*, which means, master of the king's household or servants, but he has no vote in deposing the king, nor is any guilt imputed to him, although he should thus officially murder many of his sovereigns.—*Achmet Sid el Coom*, with whom Mr. Bruce was upon the most intimate terms while he continued at Sennaar, resided in the king's (Ismain's) palace: he had put to death the late king, Nasser, and two of his sons, who were well grown, beside a child at its mother's breast, and he was expected every day to be directed to act the same part by Ismain, though at that time there was no malice on the one part or jealousy on the other.—Mr. Bruce believed each of them had an apprehension of what was likely to happen. This royal executioner told our traveller with great coolness, in answer to the question why he murdered Nasser's sons in his father's presence? that he did not dare to do otherwise from duty to Nasser, whose right it was to see his sons slain in a regular and lawful manner, and this was by cutting the throat with a sword, and not by a more ignominious and painful death, which if it had not been done in his father's sight, the vengeance of their enemies might have suggested and inflicted. He said that Nasser was very little concerned at the spectacle of his two sons' death, but very loth when it came to his turn to die, earnestly conjuring Achmet to suffer him to escape; but finding all entreaties vain, he submitted without resistance,

Mr. Bruce asked Achmet, if he was not afraid, when he entered into the king's presence, lest he too might take it into his head to shew him that to die or to be slain was not so slight a matter as he made of it? He said by no means; that it was his duty to be with the king the greatest part of the morning, and necessarily once very late in the evening. That the king knew he had no hand in the harm that might be done to him, nor any way advanced his death; but being come to the point that he must die, the rest was only a matter of decency, and it would undoubtedly be the object of his choice rather to be slain by the hands of his own relation in private, than by those of an hired assassin, an Arab, or a Christian slave in public view. *Travels, IV.* 462.

Religion of the Abyssinians.—It has already been intimated, that the Abyssinians boast their having received both their kings and the Jewish religion from Solomon. Of this they have an ancient record, which gives the following account of this singular event: "That a great and potent queen, named Azeb, or Maqueda, reigning in Ethiopia, being informed by a merchant, named Tamerin, of the great power and wisdom of Solomon, travelled to Jerusalem, attended by a retinue of the greatest princes and nobles of Ethiopia, and with immense treasure. There Solomon instructed her in the knowledge of the true God; and upon her return home, at the end of nine months, she was delivered of a son, who was called Menilehech, and also David. This son afterwards going to Jerusalem, to see his father Solomon, was magnificently entertained by him, and anointed king of Ethiopia, by Zadoc, the high-priest; and when he was thoroughly instructed in the law of God, which he was to cause to be observed in his dominions, Solomon assigned several of the first-born of Israel to attend and serve him in Ethiopia, and furnished him with officers and servants belonging to the house of Judah, with a high-priest, levites, and doctors in the law of Moses."

There is nothing in this account very improbable; but the same record adds many circumstances that are evidently false; as, that the first-born of Israel, at the instigation of Azariah, the son of Zadock, went to Jerusalem, and fetched the ark out of the temple; and being assisted by a train of miracles, escaped the pursuit of Solomon, and arrived with it in Ethiopia; it is not, however, improbable, that the prince of Abyssinia might cause another ark to be made like that formed by Moses; and that this story might be afterwards invented, in order to procure it a more general veneration. Such an ark is said to be still kept, but is so closely concealed, that even their monarchs are not admitted to a sight of it.

The Abyssinians maintain, that they were converted to christianity by the eunuch or prime minister of their queen Candace, or, as they call her, Handake, who, after his conversion by Philip, they say returned into Ethiopia, and gave his queen a full account of all that had passed; upon which that princess also believed in the gospel. However this may be, Athanasius, patriarch of Alexandria, in the year 335, ordained Frumentius, bishop of Auxuma, and sent him to preach the gospel in Ethiopia. This he performed with great success; the discipline of the church was then settled conformably to that of Alexandria; priests and deacons were every where ordained; liturgies, articles, and canons were settled and confirmed; and the Abyssinian church was brought to acknowledge herself wholly subject to, and dependent upon that of Alexandria.

The early travellers to the east, such as Rubruquis, Marco Paulo, and others, gave to the empire of Abyssinia the name of Prester, or Presbyter John's country, from the great power and authority which was possessed by the chief ecclesiastic; but Lobo accounts for this name being given to Abyssinia, because the country was confounded by the Portuguese with an ancient and famous Christian state called by that name in the Indies, which is now known as the country of the

Grand Lama. *Voyage to Abyssinia, p.* 44. The report which had been spread in Europe, of Christianity being professed in this remote and secluded country, induced John II. king of Portugal, when intent upon opening a communication with the East-Indies, to attempt to gain some knowledge of Abyssinia also.—To effect both these purposes, he sent Pedro de Covillam and Alphonso de Payva, about the year 1488, who were both thoroughly versed in the Arabic language, into the East. The two travellers repaired to Cairo, whence they travelled in company with a caravan of Egyptian merchants, and crossed over to Aden, on the Red Sea, where they separated. Payva sailed directly towards Abyssinia, Covillam embarked for the East Indies. The latter completed his travels successfully and safely, but the former was unfortunately murdered, and the country remained entirely unknown to Europeans until some missionaries were hardy enough to visit it early in the last century.

The Abyssinians, however, retain many of the Jewish ceremonies. They circumcise not only the male but the female infants, which last is done by cutting off a small piece of skin from the clitoris. They abstain from blood, things strangled, the flesh of swine, and the other animals prohibited by the Mosaic law. According to Mr. Bruce, hares are likewise interdicted for food. They use purifications and washings after certain defilements. They oblige a man, if his brother die without male issue, to marry his widow, and raise up seed to his name; and they keep the seventh day sabbath.

On the other hand, they believe the doctrine of the Trinity, and that Christ shall come again in glory to judge the quick and the dead, when the just shall inherit the kingdom of heaven, and unrepenting sinners be sent into hell. Mr. Bruce relates, that a dwarf belonging to Ras Michael, prime minister of Abyssinia, whose name was Dono, constantly spent his time in reading the scriptures, the acts of the councils, the works of St.

John Chrysostom, and other such books as they have among them.—*Travels* IV. 101.

The Abyssinian clergy are allowed to marry. The people never enter their churches without pulling off their shoes or sandals. The divine service consists of a set of prayers, psalms, and hymns suitable to the seasons, and for the most part is performed with great decency and devotion, without any of that pomp and ceremony used in the church of Rome. They have no bells, but call the people to the church by the sound of wooden hammers. They have neither pews, benches, nor hassocks, but continue standing all the time. In none of these edifices, whether sumptuous or mean, are any statues or carved images of any kind, except pictures: they will not suffer any crucifixes, whether carved or cast in metal, to be seen in them.—*Payne.*

CHAPTER XXXI.

INDOSTAN.*

This once extensive, populous, powerful, and celebrated empire, although at present entirely subverted, yet constitutes a very interesting subject for oriental history. The court of the prince, who was known in Europe by the title of the "Great Mogul," was splendid beyond rivalship, even amidst eastern grandeur. There magnificence was displayed to the fullest degree that human pride and human ingenuity, assisted by a profusion of every species of dazzling wealth, employed under the most propitious climate, to gratify the most luxurious habits, could supply. The city of Delhi,

* The history of Indostan being, we presume, but little known to most of our readers, (especially the younger class, for whose benefit this work is principally intended) we have devoted a greater portion of this publication to it than to any other country.

the residence of the emperor, was of vast extent, and its riches countless; for hither the contributions, which were drawn from the widely extended provinces of the empire, were continually flowing.

Various are the names by which the country forming this empire was known; such as India, Mogulstan, Indostan, Hindostan, and Hindoostan. Its extent and boundaries, when at the height of power, may be laid down from thirty-five degrees to nineteen degrees N. latitude, and from sixty-eight degrees to ninety-two degrees E. longitude. Bounded on the W. by the Indus, on the E. by the Ganges, northward by Cashmere, and the chain of mountains which stretch along Labore; southward by the Decan, or Deccan, and Golconda; including a vast extent of country, populous, fertile, highly cultivated, and abounding with manufactures.

When Alexander undertook his expedition into India, the powerful empire which afterwards arose there was not established, but the country consisted of several independent and extensive monarchies. After the death of Alexander, the conquests which he had made in India continued under the dominion of the Macedonians, being first governed by Pytho and afterwards by Seleucus. Soon after the death of the latter, which was about two hundred and fifty years before the Christian æra, Dr. Robinson supposes the Macedonians were compelled to abandon their possessions in India. *Historical Disquisition concerning Ancient India, p.* 33.

Some Greeks, however, still retained the kingdom of Bactria, and even extended their conquests very considerably. There were six princes who at one time reigned in Bactria, some of whom were distinguished by the title of "the Great King;" a mark of pre-eminence assumed by the monarchs of Persia when inflated by the plenitude of power. At length these potent princes were overwhelmed by a vast body of Tartars, which poured in upon them from the north, and the dominion of the Greeks in India was entirely subverted.

With their expulsion all knowledge of the internal state of the country was entirely lost, during the vast space of sixteen centuries. It was not until the Portuguese became acquainted with India, by sailing round the southern point of Africa, and boldly adventuring across the Indian ocean, that any knowledge of the history of India was obtained in Europe; although the spices, silks, porcelaine, pearls, and diamonds, which it yielded, had been obtained in all ages. Since the commerce of the East has been transferred successively to the maritime nations possessing the western coasts of Europe, the history of the powerful empires which occupy those regions has been gradually developed. Concerning many of these countries, the Romish missionaries have given very copious information; but of the empire we are now to describe, the researches of English gentlemen, who have been long resident in some of its parts, have furnished the most full and satisfactory accounts; who, amidst commercial pursuits and military occupations, have found leisure to gratify a taste for literature, in a manner the most useful and laudable. Of these the indefatigable and discerning Major Rennell has taken, beyond compare, the most extensive survey of the face of the country, and of its general history: he has, indeed, rendered Englishmen as well acquainted with the empire of Indostan, as with that of Great-Britain. From the general mass of information the following sketch has been made.

The Mahomedan government, which afterwards extended itself to Indostan, arose at first from a very small beginning among the mountains which divide Persia from India. The Afghans, or Patans, a warlike race of men, who had been subjects of the vast empire of Bœhara, revolted under their governor Abstagi, in the fourth century of the Higera, or tenth of the Christian æra, and laid the foundation of the empire of Ghizni or Gazna.

The Afghans were divided into distinct communities, each of which was governed by a prince, who was

considered by his subjects as the chief of their blood as well as their sovereign. They obeyed him without reluctance, as they derived credit to their family by his greatness. They attended him in his wars with the attachment which children have to a parent; and his government, though severe, partook more of the rigid discipline of a general, than of the caprice of a despot.—Rude, like the face of their country, and fierce and wild as the storms which covered their mountains, they were addicted to incursions and depredations, and delighted in battle and plunder. United firmly to their friends in war, to their enemies faithless and cruel, they placed justice in force, and concealed treachery under the name of address. *Dow's History: Dissertation prefixed to Vol.* III. *pag.* xi.

Under a succession of warlike Patan princes, this empire rose to a surprising magnitude. In the beginning of the fifth century of the Higera, it extended from Ispahan to Bengal, and from the mouth of the Indus to the banks of the Jaxertes; which comprehends half of the great continent of Asia.

The Charisman empire, which arose on the confines of Persia and Great Tartary, circumscribed the kings of the Ghiznian Patans toward the north, and obliged them to transfer the seat of their empire to Lahore, and afterwards to Delhi. Zingis Chan, who subverted the Charisman empire, further reduced the emperor's dominions, which became entirely confined within the limits of Hindoostan. Amir Timur, or Tamerlane, a Tartarian emperor, distinguished for extensive and rapid conquests, invaded Hindoostan, A. D. 1397, and committed numberless acts of cruelty. In one day he caused all his prisoners, amounting to one hundred thousand, to be massacred in cold blood; which execrable deed was only a prelude to the slaughter which ensued upon taking of Delhi. The conqueror, however, contented himself with reducing the emperor to a tributary dependence upon him, and evacuated the country. From him the natives gave the country the name of *Mogulstan*,

and the missionaries have denominated it "the empire of the Great Mogul," the throne having been long held by descendants from Tamerlane, who was a Mogul Tartar.

In the beginning of the sixteenth century, Baber, a descendant of Tamerlane, possessed himself of the imperial dignity, and became emperor of Mogul. This prince was the wonder of the age in which he lived; he ascended the Tartarian throne when only twelve years of age, and, with various turns of fortune, reigned thirty-eight years. He was generous and humane, a patron of learned men, and himself a scholar; he wrote his own commentaries in the Mogul language, which are universally admired. In a military capacity he was equalled by very few; he rendered the most daring enterprizes easy by his undaunted courage and perseverance, which rose above all difficulties, and made him much more the object of admiration in his adversity, than in the height of his prosperity. Nor did he forget himself in the latter, but always behaved with that moderation and equanimity which characterize a great soul. But, notwithstanding a considerable part of his life was spent in the field, he found intervals in which he gratified his passion for wine, women, and all the delights of courts. When disposed to give himself up to pleasure, he used to cause a fountain to be filled with wine, upon which was inscribed a verse to this effect. "Jovial days! blooming springs! old wine and young maidens! enjoy freely, O Baber, for life is not twice to be enjoyed." He died A. D. 1530. Humaicoon, the son of this great man, reigned about twelve years, when he was dethroned, and obliged to seek safety by retiring into Persia. Shere Shaw, an Afghan prince, then ascended the throne in 1542; but Humaicoon recovered the kingdom of Indostan twelve years afterwards, during which period three more Patan princes had successively reigned. The empire, on the restoration of Humaicoon, was again transferred from the Afghans to the Moguls. Mahummet Akbar succeeded

his father on the throne, A. D. 1555, when he was only fourteen years of age. He was the sixth in descent from Tamerlane; contemporary with Shah Abas, king of Persia, surnamed "The Great," with Elizabeth queen of England, and Henry IV. of France; four other such illustrious contemporary sovereigns history perhaps does not exhibit. The reign of this prince has been very elaborately written by his vizier Abul Fazil, except the two last years of it, the author having been cut off by ruffians in the year 1603. The encomiums he pays the prince his master, are dictated in the most sublime style of oriental adulation; but neither that, nor the violent death which overtook him, can support a suspicion that he was a gross flatterer instead of a faithful historian; for the memory of Akbar has been transmitted from age to age with the highest renown. This valuable piece of history has been lately translated into English by Mr. Gladwin.

In the reign of Akbar, the empire of Indostan was divided into twelve Soubahs, or vice-royalties. The internal regulation of the empire was much attended to by this prince. Inquiries were set on foot, by which the revenues, population, produce, religion, arts, and commerce of each district were ascertained, as well as its extent and relative position. Many of these interesting and useful particulars were, by Abul Fazil, collected into a book, called, "the Ayin Akbaree, or, Institutes of Akbar, which to this day forms an authentic register of these matters. "Akbar," says Major Rennell, "began by dividing Indostan proper into eleven Soubahs or provinces, some of which were in extent equal to large European kingdoms. The soubahs were again divided into circars, and these subdivided into purgunnahs; resembling provinces, counties, and hundreds, as few circars are of less extent than the largest English counties. The names of the eleven soubahs were Lahore, Moultan (including Sindy) Agimere, Delhi, Agra, Oude, Allahabad, Bahar, Bengal, Malioa, and Guzerat: a 12th, viz. Cubal, was formed

out of the countries contiguous to the western sources of the Indus, and included Candahar and Ghizni; three additional ones were erected after the conquests in the Deccan, viz. Berah, Candeish, and Amednagur."—*Memoir of a Map, Introd.* cx. It is said that this prince, who possessed strong natural endowments, and a great thirst for knowledge, was extremely desirous of being informed concerning the various religions which prevailed in the world: a Portuguese missionary instructed him in the religion of the church of Rome, called Christianity; an account of all the other systems of religion which prevailed in the world was easily obtained, except that of his own subjects, the Hindoos, who, as they admit no proselytes, scrupulously conceal the articles of their faith, and even the language of their scriptures. By the help of his minister Abul Fazel, a youth was imposed upon a Brahmin, as an orphan of that tribe, and was sent to the seminary of learning at Benares to be instructed in the sacred language and mysteries of the Hindoos' religion, for the purpose of imparting them, when acquired, to the emperor; but the youth, when qualified for the task assigned him, was so struck with horror at the intended profanation, that he discovered the whole design to his foster father, and the emperor remained ignorant of this mysterious faith to the day of his death. He reigned fifty-one years, (dying A. D. 1606) in which time the wealth and consequence of his kingdom rose to an height before unknown.—Upon the death of Akbar, his son Selim ascended the throne in Agra, who assumed the title of Jahangire; he reigned twenty-two years, and dying, Shah Jehan obtained the musnud, who, after a reign of thirty-two years, was deposed by his third son the famous Aurengzebe, or Aurungzebe, who murdered or banished his two brothers, and took the name of Allumguire in 1659.

To Aurungzebe, or Allumguire, business was an amusement; he added to an extensive knowledge of the affairs of the empire, an unremitting application. He punished judges severely for corruption and par-

glorious light was unseen by my dim sight. Life is not lasting, there is no vestige of departed breath, and all hopes of futurity are lost. The fever has left me, but nothing of me remains but skin and bone. My son (Kaun Bulsh) though gone toward Bejapore, is still near; and thou, my son, art still nearer. The worthy, the esteemed Shaw Aulum, is far distant, and my grandson Aziem Ooshaun, by the orders of God, is arrived near Indostan. The camp and followers helpless and alarmed, are, like myself, full of affliction; restless as the quicksilver; separated from their lord, they know not whether they have a master or not.

I brought nothing into this world, and, except the infirmities of man, carry nothing out. I have a dread of my salvation, and with what torments I may be punished. Though I have strong reliance on the mercies and bounty of God, yet, regarding my actions, fear will not quit me; but when I am gone, reflection will not remain. Come then what may; I have launched my vessel to the waves. Though Providence will protect the camp, yet, regarding appearances, the endeavours of my sons are indispensably incumbent. Give my last prayers to my grandson (Bedur Bakht) whom I cannot see. But the desire affects me. The Begum (his daughter) appears afflicted; but God is the only judge of hearts. The foolish thoughts of women produce nothing but disappointment. Farewell! Farewell! Farewell!"

To the prince Kaun Bulsh, his third son (mentioned in the foregoing) he wrote at the same time, and much in the same strain. In it he makes use of this strong expression: "The fever which troubled me for twelve days has left me. Wherever I look I see nothing but the Divinity."

The accounts which are given by Colonel Dow, together with other writers, and those by Major Rennell, concerning the affairs of the empire during the life-time

of Aurengzebe's sons, differ in a variety of particulars: the latter writer is chiefly followed here.

His sons were, Mauzum, who became emperor, under the title of Bahader Shah, (or Shaw) Azim, Kaun Bulsh, and Acbar: the latter had engaged in a rebellion during his father's reign, and fled to Persia, which accounts for his not being mentioned in the emperor's farewell letter. The contest for power, when Aurengzebe resigned his breath, first arose between Bahader Shah and his next brother Azim. The armies which they commanded, for the purpose of deciding this mighty contest, are said to have consisted of about 300,000 men each (*Rennell, Introd.* lxiv.) a battle was fought near Agra, in which Azim was slain. Bahader Shah is described, by some writers, as a prince of considerable ability, and great attention to business; but the distracted state of public affairs, and the short interval which elapsed between the death of Azim and the appearance of his next brother, Kaun Bulsh, in arms to dispute with him the empire, caused his government to be imbecile and inefficient, although the death of this competitor suppressed that commotion. He died in 1712, as some writers assert, of discontent and grief, chiefly brought on by the restless ambition of his own sons. He left four, each of whom, on their father's death, seized upon what he could most readily acquire. Aziem Ooshaun, the second, obtained the treasures, but he was presently slain: the youngest Jehaun Shah, fell in the next battle. The contest then lay between Jehaunder Shah, the eldest, and Bedur Bakht, the third, which was decided in favor of the former through the intrigues of Zoolfecar Khan, an omrah of vast influence. No sooner were Jehaunder's apprehensions of rivalship buried in his brother's grave, than, agreeable to the general practice of these voluptuous Asiatics, he abandoned himself wholly to the pleasures of the seraglio; but a revolution, brought about by Houssein Ali Khan, and Abdoolla Khan, brothers, and omrahs of great power, placed Feroksere, or Furrukhsir, son of the deceased

Aziem Ooshaun on the musnud. This event took place nine months after the elevation of Jehaunder, according to Rennell; others say eighteen months.

Furrukhsir was now declared emperor; but whilst he was invested with the external appendages of rule, the omrahs, who were the means of his advancement, reserved to themselves every essential act of power. The emperor, dissatisfied at being made the mere stalking-horse of state, meditated revenge; which, according to the pusillanimous malignity which stamps the genius of this people, is among them always hidden and perfidious. The nobles were apprised of his intentions, and by superior address counteracted his designs, and caused him to be strangled; at the same time raising Raffael el Dirjaat, or Ruffieh-ul-Dirjat (a prince seventeen years old, a grandson of Bahader Shah) to the throne; but finding that they had mistaken the genius of this youth, they took him off by poison, and advanced his elder brother Raffael el Dowlat, or Ruffieh-ul-Dowlat, to the same dignity. All these transactions happened in the course of the year 1717.

It was in the reign of Feroksere that the English East-India company obtained the famous firman, or grant, by which their goods of export and import were exempted from duties or customs; and this was regarded as the company's commercial charter in India, while they stood in need of protection from the princes of the country.—*Rennell*, p. lxvi.

The exclusive power assumed by these lords in consequence of their creation and destruction of princes, became intolerable to such great families as were not included in their junto: these united, and in order to colour over their proceedings, undertook to release Nipsir, a prince of the blood-royal, from a forty years imprisonment in the castle of Agra, and to make him king; but this attempt terminated in their defeat; and the unhappy prince, who was drawn in by the ambition of others to bear a part in the insurrection, was deprived of sight, and delivered over to his former confinement.

He soon after died a natural death at Delhi, 1719. The same great omrahs maintaining their influence, caused Mahommed Shah, another grandson of Bahader Shah, to be proclaimed emperor; who, in a short time, by an adroit exercise of his power, effected the destruction of the principal family whose influence had advanced himself and so many of his predecessors to the Musnud. The two brothers, who had been the principals in bringing about these successions, were defeated and slain, and the emperor found himself actually a sovereign. Too weak to withstand the seductions of unbounded power, he gave himself up to the most criminal excesses; grew quite regardless of the welfare of his kingdom; and permitted the most destructive enormities to be practised with impunity. The distracted state of the kingdom induced Nadir Shah, at the instigation of Nizam-al-Muluck, viceroy of the Deccan, who was then ninety-four years of age, to invade it in 1738. The Nizam died in 1748, at the great age of one hundred and four years.

The cruelties committed by this invader, in the city of Delhi and its environs, cannot fail to excite horror in the most insensible breast. The slightest tumult or commotion among the inhabitants, when starving for want of provisions, produced orders for a promiscuous carnage. Mr. Dow relates, that in one day, in consequence of an officer being killed by the side of Nadir Shah by a musket-shot, one hundred thousand, without distinction of age, sex, or condition, were laid dead in their blood. "Such were the panic-terror and confusion of these poor wretches, (continues he) that instead of bravely opposing death, the men threw down their arms, and with their wives and children submitted themselves like sheep to the slaughter. One Persian soldier often butchered a whole family, without meeting with any resistance.

The Hindoos, according to their barbarous custom, shut up their wives and children, and set fire to their apartments, and then threw themselves into the flames;

"death," continues the same author, "was seen in every horrid shape; and at last seemed rather to be sought after than avoided." This massacre was succeeded by a general plunder of the city; the public treasury and regalia being first secured. The throne of the emperor, known throughout Indostan by the name of "Tukhte-Taoos," or "the peacock throne," which was valued at ten crores of rupees, or about twelve millions and a half sterling, together with the other regalia, treasures, and valuables, amounting to no less than from seventy to eighty millions sterling, were all transferred to the conqueror. Great cruelties were exercised in extorting a discovery of concealed wealth. The damage done to the capital and the surviving inhabitants, on this occasion, was prodigious.

Ruin and desolation being spread over the city, the conqueror thought this a suitable season for celebrating the nuptials of his son Mirza Nasir Alli with the daughter of Ezidan Busth, grandson of the famous Aurengzebe; during which transaction the gates of the city were kept shut. Famine began to rage every day more and more, but the Shah was deaf to the miseries of mankind. The public spirit of Tucki, a famous actor, deserves to be recorded upon this occasion. He exhibited a play before Nadir Shah, with which that monarch was so well pleased, that he commanded Tucki to ask what he wished should be done for him; Tucki fell on his face and said, "O king, command the gates of this city to be opened, that the poor may not perish." His request was granted, and half the city poured into the country, and was plentifully supplied, in a few days, with provisions.

The king of Persia having obtained all the money which could be procured in Delhi, after reinstating Mahommed Shah in the empire with great solemnity and pomp, returned into his own country. A general defection of the provinces soon after ensued; none were willing to yield obedience to a prince deprived of the power to enforce it. The provinces to the north-west of

the Indus had been ceded to Nadir Shah, who being assassinated in 1747, Achmet Abdalla, his treasurer, a man of great intrepidity, who, like most other Asiatic chieftains, knew no restraints from the dictates of conscience, when occasions for grasping at power, however dishonorable, presented themselves, in the general confusion occasioned by the tyrant's death, found means to carry off three hundred camels loaded with wealth, enabled him to assume a sovereignty, and he actually became king of Candahar; after which he put himself at the head of an army, and marched against Delhi, having fifty thousand horse at his command. Thus was the wealth drawn from Delhi made the means of continuing those miseries of war which it had at first brought upon them. The affrighted Delhians were struck with an universal panic. Ahmed Shah, the prince royal, Kimmer ul Diel, the vizier, with other leading men, in this extremity, took the field with eighty thousand horse, to oppose the invader. The war was carried on with various success, and before its termination, Mahommed Shah deceased, A. D. 1747, in the same year as his cruel conqueror, Nadir Shah. Ahmed Shah, the son of Mahommed, then mounted the imperial throne at Delhi. The empire grew every day more into decay. The Mahrattas, a warlike nation, possessing the western peninsula of India, had, before the invasion of Nadir Shah, exacted a chout, or tribute, from the empire, arising out of the revenues of the Bengal province, which being withheld, in consequence of the enfeebled state of the empire, they became clamorous. The empire began to totter to its foundation; every petty chief, by counterfeiting grants from Delhi, laid claim to jaghiers and to districts. The country was rent and defaced by civil wars, and groaned under every species of domestic confusion.—Villainy was practised in every form; all law and religion were trodden under foot; the bands of private friendship and connections, as well as of society and government, were broken; and every individual, as if among a forest of wild beasts,

could rely upon nothing but the strength of his own arm.

Ahmed Shah reigned only seven years, being deposed, in 1753, by Gazi, an omrah of great capacity and power; who set Allumguire, a lineal descendant from Aurengzebe, as a nominal emperor, upon the throne, whom for that purpose he had released from confinement. The emperor finding himself destitute of the authority properly annexed to his dignity, determined at any rate to destroy the influence of Gazi; for which purpose he invited Abdalla to support him on the throne: which produced such consequences as the calling in a foreign hostile power to adjust dissensions has ever done. The Persian, after seizing every thing valuable which he could procure, retired, and left Allumguire to weep over his exhausted treasures. At length, Gazi seeing no means of maintaining his authority whilst the king lived, by a stratagem caused him to be assassinated, 1760.

The factions among the great, which rose on the death of the emperor, left the country exposed to a fresh invasion from Abdalla: this was the sixth time he had entered it. He once more laid the city of Delhi under heavy contributions, and enforced the collection with such rigour and cruelty, that the unfortunate inhabitants, driven to despair, took up arms. The Persian, on this, ordered a general massacre, which, without intermission, lasted for seven days. A great part of the buildings were at the same time reduced to ashes, and many thousands, who had escaped the sword, suffered a lingering death by famine, sitting upon the smoaking ruins of their own houses. Thus the imperial city of Delhi, which in the days of its glory extended itself seventeen crores, or coss, or about thirty-four miles in length, and was said to contain two millions of people, became almost an heap of rubbish. Abdalla now, considering himself arbiter of the fate of Indostan, marched against the Mahrattas, who alone obstructed his views. These had created Jewan Bucht, then

thirteen years of age, grandson of Allumguire, and son of Shah Aelum, emperor. Abdalla defeated these people in a decisve battle, in which the Mahomedan force is said to have amounted to 150,000 men, and the army of the Mahrattas to 200,000 : the records of Indostan do not take notice of any action so obstinate and bloody as this. The conquerer then confirmed the young Jewan Bucht on the throne, now circumscribed in authority to the provinces of Delhi. He previously invited the father of this youth to Delhi, promising to seat him on the throne of his ancestors ; but Shah Allum, who was then in Bahar, did not choose to put himself in the power of this maker of emperors. After the departure of Abdalla, Shah Allum made several unsuccessful attempts to engage the English in his interests. At length, says Mr. Bolt, after experiencing various calamities, the English company condescended to create him their Great Mogul. *Dow's History of Indostan. Holwell's Interesting Events, part* 1. *Bolt's Considerations.*

Recent accounts from India have made us acquainted with the melancholy end of this unfortunate emperor.—The Rohilla chief, Golam Cawdir, having taken possession of Delhi in the year 1789, put out the eyes of Shah Allum, who soon after suffered an excruciating death. *Rennell*, 365.

Having spoken of the extent and wealth of Delhi, curiosity will certainly be gratified by giving some general description of that renowned city.

Delhi, the capital of the province of the same name, is situated in 79 degrees E. longitude from London and in 28 degrees N. latitude, and stands on the river Jemma, which divides it into two parts, that last built was erected by Shah Jehan, and from the founder was called Jehanabad; but the Europeans give to both the common name of Delhi. In the part built by that emperor all the houses enclosed spacious courts, and in the inner part of these buildings the people lodged, to prevent any from approaching the place appointed for their women. Most of the great

men had houses without the city, on account of the convenience of the waters.

The entrance into the city was by a long street, on each side of which were regular arches, under which the merchants had their shops. This street led to the palace, which was above a mile and a half in circumference. The wall was built of hewn stone, with battlements, and at every tenth battlement was a tower.

The extensive stables which were attached to this palace, whilst the splendour of the Mogul was at its height, were always filled with the finest horses, in which the monarch took great delight; these were brought from Arabia, Persia, and Tartary, at a great expence. Before every stable-door hung a kind of mat made of reeds, and bound together with silk, twisted in the form of flowers. These were intended to prevent the flies from entering; but they were not satisfied with this precaution; every horse having two grooms, who relieved one another, and fanned the animal continually. All the day they had carpets over them, and at night they lay upon a litter made of their own dung, dried in the sun, and well pounded.

In modern times no instance occurs of devastation brought on a magnificent city equal to that which overwhelmed Delhi; and perhaps in wealth it was superior to the boasted cities of antiquity, whose ancient grandeur is yet to be traced in their stupendous ruins. During the latter part of the last century, it is reported to have contained two millions of inhabitants. Nadir Shah is supposed to have plundered it of sixty-two millions sterling: and even after that, ample gleanings accrued to Abdalla.

The HINDOO or GENTOO History.] "There is no known history of Hindoostan," says major Rennell, "(that rests on the foundation of Hindoo materials or records) extant, before the period of the Mahomedan conquests: for either the Hindoos kept no regular histories, or they were all destroyed, or secluded from common eyes by the Pundits. We may judge of their tra-

ditions in general by that existing concerning Alexander's expedition: which is, that he fought a great battle with the emperor of Hindoostan, near Delhi; and though victorious, retired to Persia across the northern mountains. So that the remarkable circumstance of his sailing down the Indus, in which he employed many months, is sunk altogether: and yet perhaps few events of ancient times, rest on better foundations than this part of the history of Alexander. It is chiefly to Persian pens that we are indebted for that portion of Indian history which we possess." *Memoir of a Map, third edition, Introd. p.* xl.

The empire of the Hindoos or Gentoos over all India, as tradition maintains, came down from the darkest and most remote antiquity to the one hundred and seventieth year before the Christian æra, when it was dissolved by civil discord and war. Bengal, like many other provinces, started up into an independent kingdom, and was governed by successive dynasties of rajahs, who chiefly resided at the now-deserted capital of Ghor. Under these princes it continued a powerful and opulent kingdom to the beginning of the thirteenth century, when it was first invaded by the Mahomedans, under a prince of the race of Chillagi, who possessed the countries near the source of the Oxus (the modern Jihon.)—The name of this Tartar invader was Eas-ul-dien. But he was soon after reduced to subjection by Altamsh, the Patan emperor of Delhi, who formed Bengal into a province, which was governed by a lieutenant.

Bengal, during the dominion of the Patans in India, was frequently subject to revolution and change. Akbar, the great, by the expulsion of Daood, the last king of Bengal of the Patan race, annexed it in the year 1574 to his empire.

It then became governed by a viceroy, known by the names of Nabob, Subah, and Nazim. This officer held his dignity only during pleasure.

Dreadful have been the oppressions practised on the defenceless natives of Indostan: enormous were the depredations on the wealthy, and severe the sufferings of the poor; to the latter, destructive monopolies, and artificial scarcities, caused a want of those very few necessaries which the most abstemious habits of life required. The British legislature was impelled, by every principle of humanity and justice, as well as of political wisdom and sound policy, to correct such a flagrant abuse of power; for which purpose many salutary laws have been passed, and the most effectual measures have been taken, with a view to check the rapacity of individuals, and to establish a mild and equitable government in the country; in consequence of which, the accounts brought for some time past, bear testimony to the good effects already produced, and to the tranquility, harmony, and prosperity which prevail.

When France thought fit to interfere in the contention between Great-Britain and her American colonies, Pondicherry first fell a sacrifice to this intriguing spirit; but a formidable enemy arising to the English, in the person of Heider Alli, a wasteful, destructive, and inglorious war was maintained on the peninsula of India. The British fleet was no longer commanded by a Pocock, and admiral sir Hyde Parker, who was sent out to restore the tarnished lustre of the nation in those seas, was most unhappily lost on his passage thither. Pondicherry once more reverted to France at the peace of 1783, but its fortifications had been previously rased, and its consequence lost.

Possessions of the English in India.—Bengal is well known by giving its name to the greatest gulf in Asia, which separates the two peninsulas of the Indies. This kingdom, which is situated at the N. W. extremity of the gulf, extends six hundred miles from E. to W. and three hundred from N. to S. It consists of one vast plain, of the most fertile soil in the world, which, in common with other parts of Indostan, renders two, and in some parts three crops a year. Its chief produce

ls sugar, silk, fruits, pepper, opium, rice, salt-petre, gum-lack, and civet. It is usually compared to Egypt for its fertility, the river Ganges here dividing itself into several branches, and annually overflowing the country as the Nile does Egypt.

The British nation possesses, in full sovereignty, the whole soubah of Bengal, and the greatest part of Bahar; but in that province there are several pergunnahs on the S. W. which are now in possession of the Mahrattas: in Orissa they possess only the districts of Midnapour; the rest being entirely in the hands of the Mahrattas, or their tributaries. The British possessions in these three provinces contain about 150,000 square British miles of land, to which, if we add the district of Benares, the whole will be 162,000 miles, which is 30,000 more than are contained in Great-Britain and Ireland. The native inhabitants are estimated at eleven millions. The revenue, including that of Benares, (which, since the deposition of Cheit Sing, in 1783, has been fixed at four millions of sicca rupees, or 380,000 pounds sterling) major Rennell states to have been, in the year 1786, about 278 lacks of sicca rupees, valued at 2*s.* 1½*d.* which may be reckoned to 3,790,000 pounds sterling. This includes customs, mint, &c. clear of charges, 120,000 pounds; salt revenue 430,000 pounds; and opium 60,000 pounds. The subsidy from the nabob of Oude is a farther amount of 420,000 pounds, which increases the whole to 4,210,000 pounds. The various charges arising from collecting the revenue, civil and military establishments, marine, and fortifications, amount to 2,540,000 pounds. So that the net revenue arising from these provinces amounts to 1,670,000 pounds sterling.

GOVERNMENT of the MOGUL.] The emperor was absolute and sole arbiter of every man's fate, and under the control of no law. All the lands in India were considered as the property of the king, except some districts which were the hereditary possession of certain Hindoo princes. The title of Great Mogul appears to

have been adopted upon no other authority than that of the French missionaries, who in the first publication of their travels to the east, have been pleased to stile him the Grand Mogul. No appellation or title given this monarch in the empire serves to confirm this description of him, where he is called simply Shah, or Padshah; in Persian meaning king. *Bolt's Considerations, page* 22.

According to the opinion of the Indians, the right of succession is vested in the eldest son; but the last will of the Shah very often counteracted this claim of primogeniture. All children born in the haram were alike legitimate, whether the issue of wives or concubines.

The vizier was generally first minister of state. All edicts and public deeds were used to pass under his seal, after the royal signet was affixed to them. He superintended the royal exchequer, and in that capacity kept accounts with the dewans or receivers-general of the provinces, in every thing respecting the finances.

A Vakiel Mutuluck was an officer elected only in times of exigency; and during his continuance the Shah delegated to him his whole power, reserving only to himself the imperial title and ensigns of royalty.

The Mogul system of government admitted of no hereditary honours. The ranks and degrees of nobility were for the most part official, excepting those of the military kind. The nobles, or omrahs, consisted of three orders: the Emirs, who were the first officers of state, and the viceroys of provinces; the Chans, who held high posts in the army; and the Bahadurs, who may in some measure be compared to our knights.—The number of which these three orders consisted was arbitrary, and each of them had peculiar privileges in the empire.

No princes in the world patronized men of letters with more generosity and respect than the Mahomedan emperors of Indostan. A genius for literature was not only the means to acquire a degree of wealth which must astonish Europeans, but an infallible road for rising to

the first offices in the state. The character of the learned was at the same time so sacred, that tyrants, who made a pastime of embruing their hands in the blood of their other subjects, not only abstained from offering violence to men of genius, but stood in fear of their pens. And, however amazing it may seem in absolute governments, it is certain, that the historians of that division of the world have written with more freedom, concerning persons and things, than writers have dared to do in the west. *Dow's Indostan.*

The great officers of state, by a kind of prescription, formed a council, similar to the British cabinet. The emperor asked their advice upon affairs of moment; he heard their sentiments; but nothing was decided by vote.—They were his advisers, but they had no controul on his power. He frequently called to this council men in inferior departments; and when the deliberation concerned any particular province, the nobles best acquainted with that part of the empire were admitted into the cabinet. The offences of the first rank of nobility came under the cognizance of this council, as well as other matters of state. They were a kind of grand jury, who found the matters of fact, and the sovereign pronounced the sentence. He might, by his despotic power, issue out a warrant of death without their advice; but the known opinions of mankind on that subject bound him like a law.

When the empire was in its vigorous state, as often as the king took the field, the provincial nabobs with their troops were bound to repair to the imperial standard. Each nabob erected his own standard, and formed a separate camp, subject to the imperial orders only.—There are but few traces of real discipline to be met with among those myriads with whom the emperors of Indostan often took the field. The forces of the great Sultan Baber alone were formed on a regular and masterly plan. The disposition of his battles was extremely judicious; and the signal victories he obtained over immense armies, with a handful of men, are sufficient to convince

us that military discipline has not always been unknown in Asia.

"It may be matter of surprise to an European," says Mr. Dow, "how eastern armies of two or three hundred thousand horse, and triple that number of soldiers and followers, could be supplied with provisions upon their march, and in their standing camps. To account for this," continues he, "it is to be observed, that every provincial nabob, when he takes the field, appoints an officer called the cutwal, whose business it is to superintend the bazars, or markets, which shall belong to his camp. Every commander of a body of troops obtains at the same time permission to hoist a flag for a bazar, and to appoint a cutwal of his own, under the direction of the cutwal-general. These cutwals grant licences to chapmen, sutlers, and corn dealers, who purchase the protection of the different flags by a stipulated tax. The pay of the soldiery in Indostan is very great; this enables them to give high prices for provisions, and the countries round run all hazards for such a prospect of advantage. The natural fertility of the country enables the inhabitants thus readily and plentifully to furnish the armies.

The Mahomedans, as well as the warlike nations of the Hindoos, are fond of the parade of cavalry, of which most of their armies are composed; but a great and strange defect reigns in these armies: every soldier provides his own horse; if his horse is killed (as it is generally impossible for him to furnish another) he is no longer a soldier; his livelihood depends upon his horse more than on himself, and according to the value of that he receives his pay. It is astonishing that Mahomedan princes should ever adopt this maxim; for, although a Mahomedan, from his faith in predestination, ought not to run away to save his own life, he will most likely avoid all danger to save his horse; which occasions mighty and insurmountable obstacles to their ever conquering Europeans. *Mrs. Kindersley's Letters, page* 203.

REVENUES OF THE MOGUL EMPIRE.—The revenues of the Mogul arose from the produce of the ground, the customs of the sea-ports, the estates of the great men at their death, which devolved to the crown, the presents from his subjects, who never approached their prince or governor empty handed, and the treasures produced by the diamond mines. The viceroy or governor of every province which owned subjection to him, was obliged to supply the crown with a certain sum, which he raised out of the manufactures and produce of the soil. This, added to the other revenues, is said to have amounted annually to between forty and fifty millions sterling, before Nadir Shah ravaged the empire.

RELIGIONS IN INDIA.—MAHOMEDANS.—Of the Mahomedan religion in India little need be said, as the rise, progress, and establishment of Mahomedanism, has already been treated of in a former chapter.

The people of Indostan do not approve of calling God good, righteous, merciful, thinking such epithets superfluous and impertinent; as if one was emphatically to say of a man that he had a head, or any other members necessary to the human form: for they conceive it a profanation of the name of God to associate it with human attributes and conceptions; and that nothing fills the idea due to that Being so well as the name itself, "a substantive singularity, and for ever above the junction of an adjective." If this is superstition, it is the sublimity of it.

The ancient and venerable city of Benares, has, from time immemorial, been the principal university of Braminical learning. Major Rennell supposes that towards the close of the twelfth century, when Mahomed Gori perpetrated the most shocking cruelties upon the Brahmins in that city, and committed every kind of outrage and violence upon the objects of their worship, that the Sanscrit had, until then, been the current language in Hindoostan, and from that period it began to decline in its purity, by the admission of words from that of the

conquerors, until the language of Hindoostan became what it now is; the original Sanscrit preserved in their ancient writings becoming a dead language. *Memoir of a Map, Introd. page* xlvii. *3d edition.*

A remarkable and interesting circumstance in the traditional belief of the Hindoos, is, the inconceivable antiquity of the world. In the extent of their belief of this fact, they even exceed their neighbours the Chinese, and do not fall short of them in circumstantiality of relation. They reckon the existence of the world by four Jogues, or ages. The first they call "The Suttee Jogue," or age of purity; which they hold to have lasted 3,200,000 years, and that the life of a man was, in that age, extended to 100,000 years, and that his stature was twenty-one cubits. The second they call "Tirtah Jogue," or the age in which one-third of mankind were reprobated. They suppose its duration to have reached 2,400,000 years, and that men then lived to the age of 10,000 years. The third they call "The Dwapaar Jogue," in which half of the human race became depraved; this period, they say, continued 1,600,000 years, and mens lives were reduced to 1000 years. The fourth, or "Colle Jogue," in which all mankind are corrupted, or, rather lessened, (for such is the meaning of Collee) is the present æra, which they suppose is ordained to exist for 400,000 years, of which near 5000 are already passed; man's life in this period is limited to 100 years. *Halhed's Preface, page* xxxviii.

To reconcile such wonderful extravagances with the sober scriptural relation of the origin of things, would be a solution devoutly to be wished, and therefore prompts to hazard the following conjectural explanation. Let us then consider the first age, or the Suttee Jogue, as an angelic state; and both the Jewish and Christian scriptures warrant a belief of such beings existing long before mankind was produced. We can only conceive of angels as of beings possessing intellectual faculties, not differing in their nature, but merely in their degree,

from men; and the mental powers of men seem to have been so enlarged, in the notions of the Hindoos, during that period, that they may as well be called embodied angels as men. The second age, or Tirtah Jogue, bears no essential disagreement with the relation of the fall of angels, to which the Jewish and Christian oracles bear testimony. The third may be considered as a farther defection in the angelic host; and the fourth corresponds, very remarkably, with the Mosaic account of the duration of this globe.

The Hindoos know of no tradition respecting a general deluge.

The Gentoos have, in all ages, believed in the transmigration of souls, which they denominate Kā,āpĕwâêsh and Kāyāpĕlût. This latter literally answers to the word Metempsychosis. An ancient Shaster, called "The Geeta," written by Adhea Doom, has a beautiful stanza upon this system of the transmigration, which he compares to a change of dress.

Thus in English:

As, throwing aside his old habits,
A man puts on others that are new;
So, our lives, quitting the old,
Go to other new animals.

Halhed's Preface, p. xlv.

Hence it is highly probable, that the doctrine of the Metempsychosis, by which Pythagoras was so particularly distinguished, was derived from them, with many other articles and modes of worship and opinion, which, from certain resemblances, might be traced from the same source. Thus, among many other conjectural instances, may be quoted the Paphian Venus; for the form of which Tacitus could not account, it rising from a broad basis to a narrow point at the top, which is exactly the figure of the idol in India consecrated to such an office as that heathen deity was supposed to preside

over, and to which, on the borders of the Ganges, the Gentoo virgins are brought to undergo a kind of superficial defloration, before they are delivered up to their husbands. Mr. Holwell confirms this sentiment; see his Interesting Events in India; and Raynal has adopted it.

The passage in Tacitus is as follows: "Dea non effigie humana, continuus orbis latione initio tenuum in ambitum metæ modo exungens, et ratio in obscuro." *Tacit. Hist. lib.* ii. 3.

This idol, which is worshipped by the Gentoos under the name of Jaggernaut, is represented by captain Hamilton as pyramidical black stone, fabled to have fallen from heaven, or at least to have miracuously appeared in the place where they have erected his temple. It appears that this stone is meant for the power presiding over universal generation, which they attribute to the genial heat and influence of the sun acting in subordination to it, and to whom is addressed the following prayer, which the Brahmins especially often repeat in a day, with their eyes lifted up toward the sun: "Thou power, which illuminates that resplendent orb, deign also to illuminate my mind, so as that I may thereby be directed to walk in the way which is most pleasing to thee."

Religion of the Parsees.—There seem to be two distinctions necessary to be made in the religion of the Parsees, or Gaures, who transplanted themselves from Persia, when the Mahometans conquered that country: the first, the pure religion, as taught by Zoroaster; and the second and more modern one, disfigured by various adulterations, as it is at present practised among the Parsees of India and Persia.

Zoroaster flourished under the reign of Hystaspes, king of Persia, about five hundred years before the birth of our Saviour, and was profoundly versed in mathematics and natural philosophy, hence he probably derived those sublime notions in relation to fire, on

which he founded the basis of his religion, and which his followers still retain.

It is however evident that he found an homage paid to that element already established in the country, since Pyræums, or conservatories of perennial fire were known to be there long before his time; but whether such worship of it was a religious act, or whatever it might be, it was accompanied by many idolatrous rites; and Zoroaster exerted himself to purge it of its gross errors, and reduce it to the two grand points on which he founded his religion; namely, the belief of one Supreme God, and of the sun, or element of fire, being the first minister, and also the symbol of his purity; from these principles the rest of his opinions flowed.

Some writers maintain that there were two Zoroasters; and that the last, arising six hundred years after the first, explained and new modelled his religion, which he stripped of the errors and superstitious practices by which it had been disfigured.

Be that as it may, agreeably to the above doctrine, the followers of Zoroaster are still so penetrated with the idea of the immensity and omnipresence of God, that they may esteem it a proof of great narrowness of sentiment to erect temples to him, as conveying the groveling idea of confining him who fills all space between four walls; hence they make use of that celebrated saying, that "There is no temple worthy of the majesty of God, except the whole universe, and the heart of an honest man." Of all their opinions, they esteem that most sacred, that God was the sole necessary self-existent Being from all eternity, and is the supreme author of all good. Hence they detest the schism of those Persians who admit the co-eternity of the two principles of good and evil, and all the absurdities of Manicheism.

They maintain, since many effects in nature, which at the first view appear to be evils, are justified as to the wisdom of their causes, by their ultimately issuing in a known superior good, therefore it is just we should be-

lieve that all the rest are so, though their ends, probably for very wise reasons, are concealed from us. Hence they allege, that it is the utmost rashness and impiety to infer absolute evil from some individuals occasionally appearing to suffer, from those primordial laws to which God had subjected all his works in general, without excepting man, whose good has been as much consulted as was fitting it should be, of which God ought surely to be esteemed a competent judge. Hence they deny that omnipotence has introduced real evil into nature; and maintain, that no evil actually exists but what is imaginary, temporary, and bearing no proportion to real, infinite, and eternal goodness.

As to fire, they place its source in the sun, to which they pay a very high reverence, out of gratitude for the numerous benefits which flow from it; but they are so far from confounding the subordination of the servant, with the majesty of the Creator, that they attribute no degree of sense to the sun, or fire, in any of its operations; but consider it as a purely passive, blind instrument, directed and governed by its Creator. They even give that luminary, all-glorious as it is, no more than the second rank among his works, reserving the first for that stupenduous production of divine power, the mind of man.

They believe the immortality of the soul, and found the doctrine of rewards and punishments in the other life on the light of reason, which enables them to perceive the difference between right and wrong; or, to speak in their figurative style, the conflict between Oroozm the good principle, and Harryman the evil one; or between the flesh and the purer spirit. As to future punishments, they exclude material burning from forming any part of them, and esteem the element of fire too pure and too noble to be employed in the office of an executioner. They even pretend, that the fire of divine love will moderate the punishments inflicted by justice.

The modern Parsees represent the place of future suffering as a dark, dreary, disconsolate region, re-

plete with horror, pain, and disgust; caverns abounding with serpents, water thick like melted pitch, and cold as snow. They do not, however, hold these punishments to be eternal, but imagine that the guilty sufferers will be at length delivered, and even placed in a state of bliss, but inferior to that of the good, from whom they will also be distinguished by a brand in their foreheads. In fine, they imagine that, both in degree and duration, these punishments will be proportioned to human frailty; but that rewards, like the divine goodness, will be infinite and unbounded.

It is said, that the greatest honour the Parsees think they can do to the remains of their deceased friends, is to expose them to be devoured by birds of prey; for these living tombs they esteem preferable to any kind of sepulchre. About a mile from the city of Surat, they have a place to which they carry their dead; this is within a circular wall, open at the top, twelve feet high, and one hundred in circumference. The ground within is raised about four feet, and made sloping, that all moisture may drain from the carcases into a sink made for that purpose; nothing can exhibit a more shocking appearance than this burying ground, as it is called, where are seen a multitude of dead bodies, loathsome and discoloured; some green, some yellow, some with their eyes torn out by the vultures, and some with all the flesh of their cheeks pulled of; great holes eaten in different parts of their bodies, and carcases torn and mangled. The vultures, it is observed, will place themselves down the wind, in order to enjoy the smell of these carcases; and sometimes cram themselves with human flesh till they are scarce able to fly.

The punishments for crimes chiefly consist in fines; yet, in exact agreement with the Jewish laws, it is said, "If a man deprives another of life, the magistrate shall deprive that person of life." If a Brahmin deprives any person of life, his life shall not be taken in return, but he shall be fined one hundred Ashrufies (which is the most valuable gold coin.) If a man

has put out both the eyes of any person, the magistrate shall deprive that man of both his eyes, condemn him to perpetual imprisonment, and fine him 800 puns of cowries, (each pun consisting of 80 cowries.) But although in these laws Brahmins are exempted from capital punishment, yet they may be degraded, branded, imprisoned for life, or sent into perpetual exile; but it is every where ordained that a Brahmin shall not be put to death on any account whatever. In chap. iii. sect. 3, page 109, is the following passage: "If a Brahmin should come with intent to murder another, and that person has no means of escaping, and cannot save his own life but by the death of the Brahmin, in that case, if he should kill the Brahmin, the magistrate shall not take a fine from him: also, if a cow should attempt to kill any person, and there is no way of escaping, that person may kill the cow, for the preservation of his own life, and in this case he shall not be amenable." It is well known, though not expressed in this body of laws, that among the Gentoos, criminals sentenced to death are not to be strangled, suffocated, or poisoned, but to be cut off by the sword, because, without an effusion of blood, malefactors are supposed to die with all their sins about them; but shedding their blood is considered as expiating their crimes. The unjust punishment of Nundcomar, who was hanged on a gibbet, in violation of the laws of his country, and even by an *ex post facto* English law, was aggravated by that circumstance of horror, that he died without an effusion of blood. Amongst a people so gentle, mild, and compassionate, one would not expect to find so cruel a punishment decreed for beating or ill treating a magistrate who had been detected in committing a crime: it is decreed that the magistrate shall thrust an iron spit through the offender, and roast him at the fire. So high a sense is entertained of the sacredness of magistracy, even when the magistrate has committed a crime, that one of the most cruel deaths, which human ingenuity can invent, is incurred by insulting it, and the offence is expressly com-

pared to the greatest act of human depravity which these people can conceive of, namely, the murdering of an hundred Brahmins! but a Brahmin thus offending is not to suffer death, but to be fined 100 Ashrufies.

The laws respecting women being extremely curious, we shall select the following:—"If a man by force commits adultery with a woman of an equal or inferior cast, against her consent, the magistrate shall confiscate all his possessions, cut off his privy members, and cause him to be led round the city, mounted upon an ass." If a man by cunning or deceit commits the act with a woman of an equal or inferior cast, the offender shall lose all his possessions, be branded in the forehead, and banished the kingdom. If, either by force or cunning, a man commits the act with a woman of a superior cast, the magistrate shall deprive him of life. "If a woman of bad character, (except the wife of a Brahmin) who has no master, of her own accord goes to a man for a criminal purpose, that man, after having given information to the magistrate, may have carnal knowledge of her, and is not liable to punishment." "It is proper for a woman, after her husband's death, to burn herself in the fire with his corpse; every woman who thus burns herself shall remain in paradise with her husband three crore and fifty lacks of years, by destiny: if she cannot burn, she must, in that case, preserve an inviolable chastity: if she remains always chaste she goes to paradise; if she does not preserve her chastity, she goes to hell." See a particular account of the several instances of the ceremony attending these self-devoted victims, in *Payne's System of Geography, vol.* 1. *page* 191, 192, *and* 193.

The ordeal trials of melted lead, or boiling oil, as practised here, are considered by the Gentoos as a standing miracle. The ceremony is performed with great solemnity. The party who has appealed to this trial, for his innocence, whether on suspicion of murder, theft, conjugal infidelity in the women, or even in

denying a debt, is publicly brought to the side of the fire, on which is a cauldron, or ladle-full of boiling water, or oil, but most commonly melted lead; the prince or magistrates of the country being present, his hand is previously clean washed, and a leaf of the bab-tree, with the accusation written upon it, is girt round his waist; and then on the solemn invocation of the Deity by a Brahmin, the person plunges in his hand, scoops up the boiling fluid, and if he draws it out unhurt is absolved, otherwise he receives the punishment prescribed by the laws for the crime against which the accusation lay; and so firm is the belief in this method of purgation on the coast of Malabar, that even some of the Indian Christians and Moors, fearless of pain, maiming, and disgrace, have voluntarily submitted their cause to that decision; but such no doubt had previously taken the proper measures to secure this miraculous confirmation of their innocence.

This method of discriminating between guilt and innocence, is mentioned in the third chapter of the code of Gentoo laws, (which treats of justice) under the name of *Purrekeh*, and Mr. Halhed says, in his preface, p. lviii, that, "the modes of this ordeal are various in India, according to the choice of the parties, or the nature of the offence; but the infallibility of the result is, to this day, as implicitly believed as it could have been in the darkest ages of antiquity."

Singular as this practice is, the Gentoos do not appear to be the only people who retain it, for we are told that the Poglizans, a people inhabiting some of the islands and a part of the coast of Dalmatia, at this day make use of proofs by fire and boiling water, to discriminate between guilt and innocence, and the victims of this institution are sometimes seen disabled and half roasted. See *Abbe Fortis' Travels into Dalmatia*, page 251.

TRIBES OR CASTS OF THE GENTOOS, OR HINDOOS.—Gentio is a Portuguese word, meaning Gentile, by which general appellation all the natives of India

were at first called, whether they were Mahomedans or Hindoos: but the English, and other nations, have adopted the term Gentoo, to distinguish the Hindoos, or followers of Brimha, from the Mahometans, or Mussulmans, whom they commonly, though improperly, called Moors, or Moormen. *Bolts' Considerations on Indian Affairs.*

The Hindoos have from all antiquity been divided into four great tribes, each of which comprehends a variety of inferior casts. These tribes do not intermarry, eat, drink, or in any manner associate with one another, except when they worship at the temple of Jagganaut, (the being who is said to preside over the present period) in Orissa, where it is held a crime to make any distinction.

The first and most noble tribe are the Brahmins, who alone can officiate in the priesthood, like the Levites among the Jews. They are not, however, excluded from government, trade, or agriculture, though they are strictly prohibited from all menial offices by their laws. They derive their name from Brimha, whom they allegorically say produced the Brahmins from his head when he created the world. The second in order is the Chehteroe tribe. They, according to their original institution, ought to be all military men, but they frequently follow other professions. Brimha is said to have produced the Chehteree from his heart, as an emblem of that courage which warriors should possess. The name of Beise, or Bice, is given to the third tribe. They are for the most part merchants, bankers, and cunias, or shopkeepers. They are figuratively said to have sprung from the belly of Brimha; the word Beish signifying a provider or nourisher. The fourth tribe is that of Sooder. They ought to be menial servants, and they are incapable of raising themselves to any superior rank. These are said to have proceeded from the feet of Brimha, in allusion to their low degree. But indeed it is contrary to the inviolable laws of the Hindoos, that any person should rise from an inferior cast

into an higher tribe. If any, therefore, should be excommunicated from any of the four tribes, he and his posterity are for ever shut out from the society of every cast in the nation. This severity prevents all intermixture of blood between the tribes, so that in their appearance they seem rather four different nations than members of the same community.

The attachment of an Hindoo to the peculiar tenets of his religion as well as to his tribe, cannot be more strongly instanced than in the following anecdote, from *Mr. Verelst's account of Bengal.*

"An Hindoo had been bribed to procure some papers belonging to a gentleman who died in the company's service. The son caught him in the fact; and, in revenge of his treachery, compelled him to swallow a spoonful of broth. Ridiculous as the punishment may seem, it was attended with very serious consequences. No sooner was his pollution known, than he was degraded from his cast, lost all the benefits of society, and was avoided as a leper by his tribe." When a man is thus disgraced, he is henceforth obliged to herd with the *Hallachores*, "who (says Mr. Scrafton) can scarcely be called a tribe, being the refuse of all tribes. These are a set of poor unhappy wretches, destined to misery from their birth. They perform all the vilest offices in life, bury the dead, and carry away every thing that is polluted. They are held in such abomination, that on the Malabar side of India, if one of these chances to touch a man of a superior tribe, he draws his sabre and cuts him down on the spot, without any check from his own conscience, or from the laws of the country." In this miserable situation was the above poor Hindoo, when lord Clive prevailed on the Brahmins to assemble, and consult if there could not be a remission of an involuntary deviation from their law: after much deliberation, the Brahmins affected a compliance, but the man was never restored to his tribe. According to Mr. Halhed, a man born of a mixed cast is called a *Burrun-Sunker. Code of Gentoo Laws*, p. 42.

The Mahometan governors often take advantage of this principle, when they want to extort money; and so highly do the Hindoos value their religious purity, that after they have borne the severest corporeal punishment rather than discover their wealth, a threat of defilement will effect what torture has attempted in vain. *Verelst's Present State of Bengal*, p. 142.

From the difference of casts, (a Portuguese word, importing a class or tribe) of the Hindoos in Indostan, there arises a difference of education; but even the inferior classes are taught reading, writing, and arithmetic. The youth are taught, not within doors, but in the open air; and it is a spectacle, no less pleasing than singular, to see, in every village, a very old man, reclined on a terraced plain, teaching a number of surrounding boys, who regard him with the utmost reverence and attention. In those simple seminaries, the gentle Hindoos are not only prepared for the businesses, but instructed in the duties of life; consisting in a profound veneration for the object or objects of religious worship, reverence for their parents, respect for their seniors, justice and humanity towards all men, but a particular affection for those of their own cast. *Mackintosh's Travels*, I. 323.

This distinction of the Gentoos into casts or tribes, forms a remarkable peculiarity in their religion and government, and has both its conveniencies and inconveniencies. Thus great injustice is frequently done to genius and talents, to which they pay no regard, nor make any allowance for that infinite diversity produced by nature. Thus some are confined to make an insignificant figure in one sphere, who might shine in another.

As most of these tribes have a chief, who is in some measure accountable for the conduct of the individuals of which his tribe is composed, this regulation gratifies the views of government; the individuals, on any necessary occasion, being either numbered or assembled with ease and expedition.

Among the *nairs*, or nobles, principally prevails the strange custom of one wife being common to a number; in which the great power of custom is seen, in its never producing any jealousies or quarrels among those who possess the same woman. Beside, the number of these husbands is not so much limited by any specific law, as by a kind of tacit convention, by which it seldom happens that it exceeds six or seven. The woman is, however, under no obligation to admit more than a single attachment, though she is not the less respected for using her privilege in the utmost extent; and they are sometimes said to have twelve husbands; but they, as well as she, must be all of the same tribe.

When the daughter of a nair is married to the first of her husbands, he builds her a house, in which he alone cohabits with her, till she takes a second. The husbands all agree, and cohabit with her by turns, according to their priority of marriage, each eight or ten days, or as they can fix the term among themselves; and he who lives with her during that time provides for her support. When the man who cohabits with her goes into her house, he leaves his arms at the door, and none dare remove them, or enter the house, on pain of death; but if there are no arms to guard the door, any of them may freely visit her. During the time of cohabitation, she serves her husband as purveyor and cook; she also takes care to keep his clothes and arms clean. When she proves with child, she nominates its father, who takes care of its education, after she has suckled it, and taught it to walk and speak; but from the impossibility of assigning the true heir, the estates of the husbands descend to the sister's children, and if there are no such heirs, then to the nearest in blood to the grandmother.—*Payne.*

CHAPTER XXXII.

HISTORY OF THE JEWS, OR HEBREWS.

This rich and beautiful tract of country was first called the land of Canaan, from Noah's grandson, by whom it was peopled: but in latter ages it has been distinguished by various other names; such as the Land of Promise, the Holy Land, Palestine, Judea, and the Land of Israel.*

The serenity of the air, the fertility of the soil, and the incomparable excellence of the fruits of Palestine, induced Moses to describe it "as a land that flowed with milk and honey, &c." But in consequence of the just anger of God, the greater part of it is now reduced to a mere desart, and apparently incapable of cultivation.

In the reign of king Solomon it was divided into twelve districts, each under a peculiar officer; and, in the time of his unfortunate son, Rehoboam, a more fatal division was effected by the revolt of ten tribes, who, under the conduct of Jeroboam, established a new monarchy, which they called the kingdom of Israel, in opposition to that of Judah.

The Jews were originally wandering shepherds. The Egyptians, Assyrians, Babylonians, and Phœnicians, were long established before them; they did not acquire a fixed establishment till their return from Egypt. The Jews, confined to a small territory, and from prin-

* This country once extended from the river Euphrates to the Mediterranean sea; its present extent is only two hundred miles in length, and eighty in breadth. Palestine is peculiarly famous, as being the place of our Saviour's incarnation, miracles, and death. In this country is the river Jordan, famous for the baptism of Christ, and for several other remarkable events recorded in scripture. The present inhabitants of Palestine are Christians, Jews, and Mahometans.

ciple unwilling to mix with other people, they continued long in obscurity. They lived under a *theocratical* government,* directed by the immediate orders of the Supreme Being: a chain of miracles subverting the order of nature, and a train of uncommon actions, explained by supernatural principles, rendered them a peculiar people. "Their religious laws were blended with their civil laws; indeed the whole was a religious duty, because it was ordained by God; but as that salutary restraint, the fear of the Lord, does not always check the passions; and as the Jews guarded themselves only by the senses, they had scarcely any idea of a future state; therefore, there were dreadful threatenings and severe punishments denounced against offenders. He who broke the sabbath was stoned; and it was a breach of the sabbath to perform any sort of work, to make any kind of purchase, or even to light a fire! Children who obstinately disobeyed their parents, were punished with death. A blasphemer, an idolater, or an adulterer, might be instantly stoned without any form of trial. Such executions were called *the decree of zeal*, but might they not sometimes become the decrees of hatred and fanaticism? Insolvent debtors were mad eslaves. Crimes which were looked upon as trivial by other nations, were frequently punished with death by the Jews.

An endless number of expiations, legal ceremonies, and precepts, served to keep this fickle people in subjection. There were a number of animals which they were forbidden to eat, such as the hog, the hare, the rabbit; crawling insects, and fish without fins or scales. These animals were reputed to be unclean.

The ashes of a red heifer were absolutely necessary in the greatest part of their expiations; and the *waters of jealousy*, which were employed when a man suspected his wife of infidelity, seem very much to resemble

* Namely: a government under God himself.

our ancient judicial trials. Bitter herbs mixed with holy water, and a form of imprecation, accompanied with some religious ceremonies, made the bellies of the guilty swell and burst.* The law of grace has abolished all these customs, as well as circumcision, which was positively commended to the Jews. They, like most of other nations, offered *human sacrifices*. Every seventh year was sabbatical, and then all the labours of agriculture were suspended; they gave their harvest to the poor, to strangers, and to orphans, and freedom to their slaves, discharging all debts which were owing to them by Israelites. They likewise did the same at their jubilee, which was celebrated every fiftieth year. At that period, every one resumed his property, in whatever manner it had been alienated. The desire of perpetuating families occasioned this law, which could not be reconciled with the common course of transactions, in a great and wealthy nation. They had six cities of refuge, but they served as sanctuaries to protect those who fled to them from the severity of justice, in case of involuntary homicide; but assassins might be torn, even from the altar, to suffer death.

Though the tribe of Levi, according to Jacob's prophecy, was to be dispersed among the others, and the Priests and Levites, according to a law in Deuteronomy, could have only the tythes, the offerings, and the ransom of the first born for their portion, yet the priests seem to have been very well provided for. They had the possession of forty cities; they collected several kinds of tythes; the first fruits and offerings were very considerable. Things vowed to God, except lands and cattle, and the fruits of the earth, might be redeemed by money: and these vows added greatly to the wealth of the priesthood. The chief priests exercised very great powers even in civil affairs: and Moses ordained that, in all difficulties, the people should have recourse to the

* See Numbers, chap. 5 & 24, &c.

priests and judges, and, upon pain of death, abide by their decisions. From different regulations, which are proper for a theocracy, many false consequences, contrary to sound government, have been deduced.

All strangers, their language, history, arts, and sciences, were looked upon with horror or contempt by the Jews. They were entirely ignorant of navigation and astronomy, when they returned from Babylon. However, they certainly brought from Egypt some of the natural knowledge and customs of that country. They always concealed their sacred books from the rest of mankind; and Ptolomy Philadelphus having procured a translation of them, they instituted a solemn fast for what they deemed a vast misfortune.

The religion of the Jews, though formerly clouded with mysterious ceremonies, and now totally eclipsed by the radiance of the Gospel, must ever be considered as an object of veneration; since its institution, benefits, and great rewards, are wholly attributed to God. Their *laws* were admirably adapted to honour their Creator, and to render themselves completely happy; *sacrifices* were at once calculated to remind them of their failings, which required a diurnal atonement, and to shadow forth the vicarious sacrifice that should, "in the fulness of time," be offered for the sins of the world; and even their most trivial *ceremonies* were replete with instruction, or typical of the gracious designs of the Almighty.

Their customs, both civil and religious, were chiefly founded upon their laws. Some of the most particular are here selected for the gratification of the curious.

The rite of circumcision was always accompanied with great feasting and other demonstrations of joy. At this time the child was named in the presence of the company; after which the master of the house took a cupful of wine, blessing his Creator, sipped a little of it, and passed it round to his friends.

Whether they sat or lay down at their repasts, is a controversy of small importance: the *former* custom

seems to have prevailed before the captivity; but the *latter* was certainly adopted at the time of our Saviour's institution of the holy sacrament.

Marriage does not appear to have been accompanied with any religious ceremony; such as going to the temple, offering sacrifices, or requiring the benediction of a priest. When a contract was formed by the parties and relations on both sides, the bridegroom was introduced to his bride, a solemn agreement was signed before witnesses; and the bride, after some time, was sent to her new habitation, with songs, dances, and the melodies of various musical instruments.

Their diet, except on festivals, seems to have been extremely plain; for Boaz, a man of considerable property, complimented Rúth with eating of the same *bread*, drinking of the same *water*, and dipping her morsel in *vinegar* with him. The present of victuals brought to David, whilst he laboured under the persecution of Saul, consisted of bread, raisins, parched corn, a few sheep, and two bottles of wine. Honey was esteemed a peculiar delicacy, and the milk of the goats and the fleece of the flock, were pronounced by the wise men sufficient for food and raiment, both for the master and his family.

Their high places were of two sorts: those where they burned incense and offered sacrifices to the true God; and those where they committed various abominable idolatries. Both these became so common and universal, that few kings had the courage to destroy the latter, notwithstanding the repeated admonitions of the holy prophets.

The same spirit of dissipation, which induced the Israelites to direct their worship to dumb idols, led them gradually into the practice of divination and necromancy, though the law of Moses expressly enjoined, that such persons should be put to death.

Their mourning for the death of any near relation, or for any melancholy accident, was expressed by rending their garments, tearing their hair, heaping dirt or ashes

upon their heads, wearing sackcloth next their skin, and lying upon the bare ground.

Their language was the Hebrew; the genius of which is pure, primitive, natural, and strictly conformable to the simplicity of the Jewish patriarchs: and it is highly probable, that not only they, but all their trading neighbors, had the art of writing very early; though it is impossible to determine whether each nation had a peculiar character of their own, or the same in common to them all.

The arms like those of the ancient nations, were either offensive or defensive. The former consisted of broad crooked swords, javelins, slings, bows and arrows, and two-edged swords; the latter were shields, helmets, coats of mail, breast plates, and targets.—These arms were commonly made of brass and sometimes of iron or steel.

Few trades or manufactures were carried on among the Jews before the reign of Solomon, except such as were absolutely necessary. They built their own houses, and their wives and servants attended to all domestic avocations. The dress of the men consisted of linen drawers and tunics, over which they threw a loose garment of woollen when they went abroad.

The dress of the women, especially the higher class, was more curious, as they bestowed more ornament upon it, chiefly of needle-work, which was within their own province. They also wore jewels of gold and silver, which were first brought from Egypt, and afterwards augmented by the spoil of their enemies, and their commerce with Tyre: After Solomon's time pride and luxury increased so rapidly, that the prophet Isaiah has spent a whole chapter in enumerating the costly ornaments with which the female Israelites used to decorate their persons.

CURIOSITIES OF PALESTINE.

Among the remarkable curiosities of Palestine may be justly reckoned various petrifactions in the neighborhood of Mount Carmel, which bear the most exact resemblance to citrons, melons, olives, peaches, and other vegetable productions. Here are also found a kind of oysters, and bunches of grapes of the same consistence. Small round stones, resembling peas, have been frequently seen on a spot of ground near Rachel's tomb, not far from Bethlehem. On the same road is a fountain, honored with the name of "Apostle's Fountain;" and a little farther is a barren, rugged, and dismal solitude, to which our Saviour retired, and was tempted by the devil. In this desart appears a steep and craggy mountain, on the summit of which are two chapels. There are also several gloomy caverns in the neighborhood, formerly the solitary retreat of Christian anchorite.

Among the artificial varieties may be considered the ruins of Ptolemais, or St. John D'Acre which still retain many vestiges of ancient magnificence; such as the remains of a noble Gothic cathedral, formerly dedicated to St. Andrew; the church of St. John, the titular saint of the city; the convents of the knights hospitallers; and the palace of their grand master. The remains of Sebaste, the ancient Samaria, though long ago laid in ruins, and great part of it turned into arable land, exhibit some marks of those sumptuous edifices with which it was adorned by king Herod. Towards the north side is a large square piazza, encompassed with marble pillars, together with the fragments of strong walls at some distance. But the most remarkable object is a church, said to have been built by the empress Helena over the place where St. John the Baptist was beheaded, the dome of which, together with some beautiful columns, capitals, and mosaic work, prove it to have been a noble fabric.

Jacob's well is highly venerated by Christian travellers, on account of its antiquity, and of our Redeemer's conference with the woman of Samaria. It is hewn out of the solid rock, about thirty-five yards in depth, and three in diameter, and is at present covered with a stone vault.

The famous pools of Gihon and Bethesda may be ranked among the most stately ruins; the former is situated about a quarter of a mile from Bethlehem-gate westward: Its length is a hundred and six paces, and its breadth sixty-seven. It is lined with wall and plaister, and contains a considerable store of water. The other, at Jerusalem, is one hundred and twenty paces long, forty broad, and eighty deep; but at present dry.

In the city of Bethlehem they pretend to shew the stable and manger where the adorable Messiah lay at the period of his nativity; and exhibit a grotto hewn out of a chalky rock, in which they affirm the blessed virgin concealed herself and holy child from the persecution of Herod.

At Nazareth is a magnificent church under ground, said to occupy the very cave where the virgin Mary received the angel's salutation, and where two beautiful pillars of granite are erected in commemoration of that interesting event. At a small distance are some fine remains of a larger church, supposed to have been erected in the time of the empress Helena. But this is much inferior to the great church built over our Saviour's sepulchre, by the same empress, and called the church of the Holy Sepulchre.

The last class of artificial curiosities worthy of notice, is that of the sepulchral monuments, which are scattered all over the country; and of which the most remarkable are selected for the reader's gratification.

The tomb of the holy virgin, situated near Jerusalem, in the valley of Jehosaphat, to which there is a descent by a magnificent flight of steps, has on the right hand side the sepulchre of St. Anna, the mother, and on the left, that of Joseph, the husband of Mary. In each

division are altars for the celebration of divine worship; and the whole is cut out of the solid rock.

But the most curious and magnificent pieces of antiquity of this kind are royal supulchres without the walls of Jerusalem: they are all hewn out of the solid marble rock, and contain several spacious and elaborate apartments. On the eastern side is the entrance leading to a stately court, about one hundred and twenty feet square, neatly wrought and polished. On the south side of it is a sumptuous portico, embellished in front with a kind of architrave, and supported by columns; and on the left of the portico is a descent into the sepulchral apartments.

The first of these is a handsome room, about twenty-four feet square, formed with such neatness and accuracy that it may justly be stiled a beautiful chamber, hollowed out of one piece of marble. From this room are three passages leading to other chambers of a similar fabric, but of different dimensions; in each of which (the first excepted) are stone coffins placed in niches, that were once covered with semi-circular lids, embellished with flowers, garlands, &c. but now broken to pieces. The door-cases, hinges, pivots, &c. are all of the same stone with the other parts of these rooms, and even the doors appear to have been cut out of the very piece to which they hang. Why these grots are honored with the appellation of the sepulchres of the kings is not exactly known, but whoever views them with any degree of attention must be induced to pronounce them a royal work, and to regard them as the most authentic remains of the old regal splendour, that are to be met with in the neighbourhood of Jerusalem.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

JAPAN OR SIPHON.

The empire of Japan is called by the natives Niphon, which signifies the foundation of the sun; the largest island giving its name to the two smaller ones which belong to it. By the Chinese this country is called Zippon, or Siphon.

The government and religion of the Japanese are so closely connected with their pretended origin, that it is impossible to separate them. These people are highly offended at the supposition of their being descended from the Chinese, or any other nation; for they assert that they arose within the compass of their own empire, and esteem themselves the offspring of their gods, who during an inconceivable number of ages, governed that empire, in a regular succession from father to son. Of these gods they imagine there were two races; the first perfectly divine; and the last, which descended from the former, partly divine and partly human. But who were the subjects of these imaginary deities, they do not presume to determine; for they imagine that the present inhabitants were descended from Awase Dsu No Mikotto, the last of this second race; and that their original ancestors were all of them his children by his wife the goddess Isarami No Mikotto. Thus, though they trace their original, as descended from the gods, even higher than the Chinese (for each of these imaginary deities reigned during a long succession of ages) yet they date the origin of the present inhabitants so late as about 600 years before Christ, when the genuine history of Japan begins with the reign of Sin Mu Ten Oo, the eldest son of Awase Dsu No Mikotto. To the dairi, or ecclesiastical hereditary emperors, who were said to descend in a direct line from the eldest branch of their fabulous ancestors, the people attributed an almost divine power, and an unlimited authority over their fellow-

creatures; while these emperors, proud of their illustrious and divine extraction, assumed a superstitious holiness, supported by the utmost pomp and magnificence. As they were respected as gods, they thought it beneath their dignity to trouble themselves with the management of political affairs; these therefore they left to the laity. In consequence of this, the power of the nobility increased; and those princes of the empire not only made themselves sovereign and independent in the provinces committed to their government, but quarrelling among themselves, attempted by force to dispossess each other of their dominions. Hence were produced all the train of evils which spring from ambition, jealousy, rancorous hate, and the thirst of revenge.

At length, in order to stop the defection and check the ambition of the princes of the empire, the crown-general was sent against them at the head of the imperial army. The important post of commander in chief was commonly intrusted to one of the emperor's sons, and in course of time this post gave rise to the secular monarchy: for about 500 years ago, Joritomo, the crown-general, being disappointed in his hopes of succeeding to the imperial throne, assumed the sovereignty in secular affairs; and is therefore mentioned in the history of Japan as the first secular sovereign. The power of the ecclesiastical monarch was, however, still very great; and he retained the privilege of nominating the person who should succeed to the secular authority; but, in the sixteenth century, the person who at that time held this great office made himself absolute in the secular government of the empire. He was the dairi's second son; and the laws of primogeniture depriving him of the hope to attain absolute authority from hereditary or divine right, he availed himself of the military force of the country, which he held under his control, to wrest from the emperor, his father, all authority over secular affairs. But the functions which he had thus assumed he did not quietly exercise, for several of the powerful princes of the empire contended for their

wonted independence; till at length in the year 1582, a common soldier, named Taico, or Tayckoy, a man of an obscure birth, but of a bold and daring spirit, assisted by strong natural talents, obtained the crown. At first, indeed, he had only fifty soldiers, who were of intrepid courage; but their number soon increased to a numerous army, and he carried on his conquests with great celerity and uninterrupted success: so that in a few years he subdued all the petty princes, took their cities and castles, seated himself on the imperial throne, and the dairi, or ecclesiastical emperor, was compelled to yield him the entire possession of the secular government; while he, sensible how dangerous the attempt would be to combat those deeply-rooted prejudices which both the military and the people at large cherished in favour of their ancient monarchs and high priests, readily acknowledged him to be supreme in spirituals, and to enjoy those high honours and prerogatives which had ever been inseparable from his office. To reduce the pride of the nobility, and hold them in subjection, he obliged them to bring their wives and families to his court at Jedo, where they were to remain as hostages of their fidelity whilst they resided on their governments, and they themselves were required to attend him six months in the year, and annually to renew their oath of fidelity.

This great revolution was completed in the year 1617. His son Tayckossama was a minor at the time of his father's death; he was murdered by the prince who had been appointed by Tayckoy regent during the minority. By this murder the crown passed to the family of Jejassama, in which it still continues. Taico and his successors contented themselves with the title of cubo, which under the dairi was that of prime minister.

The ambition of the princes of the empire being thus curbed, and their power broken, Taico proceeded to secure the new-modelled government from the seditious rage of the licentious vulgar, by a new system of laws; which were perhaps the most severe that ever were en-

acted since the days of Draco, and like them may be said to be written with blood; for there is scarcely a crime that is not publicly punished with death, except the criminal be a prince, and then he has only the privilege of dispatching himself in private, which is commonly done by ripping up his own bowels. In this case the emperor sends his order by letter, which if not immediately complied with, the person is either put to the most exeruciating tortures, or, if he be a prince of the royal blood, banished to some barren island, where he is perhaps forced to lead a life more severe and painful than death itself. But in other cases, the criminal is no sooner found guilty than he is hurried to execution. Kempher asserts, that a lie, or prevarication; theft, though of the slightest kind; a breach of the peace; a blow with a sword, even though sheathed in the scabbard; cheating, even at play; detraction, or any other injury done to a man's character, are all punished with death: for mere chastisements are seldom used but by the lords to their slaves. In some provinces, fathers of families, except those of the lower rank, have power over the lives and limbs of their wives, children, and domestics. But in crimes against the government, as, neglecting to obey the emperor's edicts, defrauding him in his revenue, counterfeiting the coin, setting a house on fire, robberies, burglaries, debauching a married woman, or ravishing an unmarried one; injustice, or mal-administration in public officers, whether in governors, judges, or magistrates, the punishment is not confined to the criminals, but inhumanly extended to his parents, brethren, children, and more distant relations, all of whom are put to death at the same hour, though at ever so great a distance from each other. This is done by respiting the execution of those who are near, till the sentence can be conveyed by proper couriers to the other places; and then, on the appointed time, all are brought forth, and executed at mid-day; but the lives of the female relations are generally saved, and they are sold to slavery, for a longer or shorter term of years, accord-

ing to the nearness of their relationship to the offender; except in cases of high-treason, where the wives and daughters are put to death. For thefts and robberies, the unhappy criminals are crucified with the head downward, and consigned to a longer or shorter torture, according to the degree of their criminality: so that in cases of aggravated guilt, they are left to hang on the cross till they expire, which in some instances is not in a shorter time than three or four days: but if the theft admits of a milder death, they are dispatched by a dagger, or by strangling. In cases of high-treason, not only all the relations, but the whole ward in which they live, undergo they same dreadful fate; the law supposing them to be worthy of death for suffering such enemies to society to live among them. This cruel punishment of the innocent is an effectual means of causing the criminal, when known, to be immediately discovered, since the informer not only saves himself, but his whole family.

These laws, contrary as they are to every sentiment of equity and humanity, are said to be still in force, and executed with the greatest rigour; but criminals, as soon as they find they are discovered, frequently commit an act of suicide, to escape the tortures which await them.

As a farther security to the new established government, and the safety of the empire, Taico enacted, that the empire should be rendered inaccessible for ever, and thoroughly purged from foreigners and foreign customs. No foreigners had so firm a footing in the empire as the Portuguese, who first discovered the country in the year 1543; when, induced by the prospect of gain, they made large settlements in Japan. Their foreign commodities, with the doctrine taught by the missionaries, by which it is said they gained over one-third of the people, and even several of the princes of the empire, and the marriages contracted between them and the new converts, so ingratiated them into the favour of the nation,

that, flushed with their success, they projected a revolution in the government.

In the year 1582, several princes of the empire sent some of their nearest relations, with letters and presents, for the express purpose of paying homage to Gregory XIII. who then filled the Papal chair. A circumstantial account of this embassy is given by Thuanus. *Lib. LXXXI. Sect.* 25. *Ed. Lond.* 1733. *Tom. IV.*

Two letters, written by the Portuguese, one of which was intercepted by the Dutch, laid open their treacherous designs. The Dutch, who were then at war with Portugal, seized this opportunity of discovering their treason, in hopes of gaining this profitable branch of trade to themselves. Other considerations concurred to excite in the Japanese an implacable hatred towards their European guests. Their priests could not, without the utmost discontent and resentment, see their old religion, with all its powerful attractives of profit and popular esteem, daily losing ground; and strong representations were made at court by one of the chief counsellors of state, who being met on the road by a Jesuit bishop, the haughty prelate refused to pay him the same deference and respect which he was accustomed to receive from the natives. The excessive profits the Portuguese received, and the immense treasures they sent out of the country, also alarmed the government, while the rapid progress made by the new religion, the union of the converts, and the hatred they bore to the gods and religion of the country, filled the emperor and his court with dreadful apprehensions.

Taico, the emperor, therefore began to put a stop to the increase of the Portuguese interest, and the propagation of their religion; he however made a slow progress, and left the work to be finished by his successors, who placed him among the gods, by the name of the Second Fatzman, or Mars of the country. The Portuguese, with their clergy and Japanese kindred, were ordered to depart the country, under the penalty of suffering death by crucifixion; all the other Japanese

were commanded to remain in the kingdom; those who were actually abroad were to return within a certain limited time, after which they should, if taken, be liable to the same punishment, and those who had embraced the new religion were commanded to forsake it. These orders were the beginning of a most dreadful persecution; for the new converts being unmoved by the weak reasons that were urged against their faith, the sword, the halter, the cross, and the flames, were barbarously and vainly made use of to compel them to retract their opinions and change their conduct, instead of argument to convince their understandings, and to render them sensible of their error. Yet death, in all these various forms, was far from shaking their fortitude, for they bravely sealed their faith with their blood, and shewed such amazing examples of constancy, that their enemies were filled with surprise and admiration. According to the letters of the Jesuits, 20,570 persons suffered death for the faith of Christ in the year 1590 only. This cruel persecution, which exceeded every thing of the kind mentioned in history, lasted about forty years, when at last all the remains of Christianity in Japan were exterminated in one day; for upwards of 37,000 Christians being reduced to despair at beholding the insufferable torments endured by their brethren, took up arms, and got possession of the castle of Simabra, seated upon the sea-coast, with a firm resolution of defending their lives to the utmost extremity; but, after a siege of three months, the castle was taken, on the 12th of April, 1638, and all who remained alive were cruelly butchered.

Thus was christianity suppressed in the Japanese empire by the extermination of the Christians; and that country rendered impassible to the natives, and inaccessible to foreigners. The Portuguese at Macoa afterwards sent thither a splendid embassy; but although the law of nations, and the practice of every civilized community, in conformity to that law, render the persons of ambassadors inviolate, yet, in this instance, the ambassadors, and

their whole retinue, to the number of 61 persons, were beheaded, by the special command of the emperor, except a few of their meanest servants, whom they saved, that they might carry to their countrymen the tidings of this butchery.

The Dutch, allured by the advantageous trade of the Portuguese, first landed in Japan about the year 1600, where they met with all possible opposition, and every ill office, from the European rival in commerce. Portugal was then subject to the king of Spain, with whom the Dutch were at war; and this war was rekindled before the Dutch discovered the designs of the Portuguese against the government of Japan, and then they assisted the Japanese, as hath been already mentioned, in driving out their insidious rivals, and afterwards in exterminating the Romish religion out of that empire. After these events, which, however unchristian, shewed them to be the friends, or at least the tools of the Japanese, they enjoyed considerable privileges; till, having built a factory and warehouse of hewn stone, stronger, more lofty, and more extensive than the buildings of that country, while they were unlading one of their ships into their capacious warehouse, it is said, the bottom of a large box started, and, instead of merchandize, a brass mortar fell out. The Japanese government, ever watchful for the safety of the state, were alarmed, and the Dutch received immediate orders, under pain of death, to demolish all their buildings, and remove from the port of Firando, where they were then established, to the little island Desima; which may properly enough be called the Dutch prison in Japan.

About the year 1663, the English attempted to open a traffic with Japan; but the Dutch, dreading such a rivalship, took the most effectual method to alienate the minds of the Japanese from these new European merchants, by informing them, that the king of that country, Charles II. had married a daughter of the king of Portugal. Since that time the English have entirely given up all trade directly with Japan.

In the third voyage of discovery by captain Cook, in which he unfortunately perished, and his successor, captain Clerk, died, captain Gore became the conductor of the expedition. On his return home, he came within six or seven miles of the eastern coast of Japan, but the weather being tempestuous, the coast known only by a Dutch chart, published by Jansen in his atlas, and Kæmpfer having described it as the most dangerous coast in the world; the natives too being known to be abhorrent to strangers; he therefore did not think it prudent to attempt to land; the sails and cordage of the ships being also in a very decayed condition. Some Japanese vessels bore down towards the ships, one of which came within the distance of about half a mile. The narrative says, "It would have been easy to have spoken with this vessel, but as the manœuvres of the Japanese testified that they were much alarmed, captain Gore was unwilling to augment their terror, and concluding that he should have better opportunities of communication with these people, suffered them to go off without interruption." *Cook's Third Voyage*, III. 401. No such opportunity however presented itself whilst the ships continued on the coast.

Mons. Pages, who made the circuit of the globe in a very uncommon manner of travelling, relates, in the account which he has published of that voyage (Vol. I. p. 231, Lausanne Edition) that some time since (he travelled in the year 1761) the Manillans sent deputies and presents to Japan, with proffers of friendship and proposals of forming a commercial intercourse, founded upon such principles as should be mutually beneficial. The Japanese received the deputies very kindly, accepted their presents, and made them others in return of much higher value, but absolutely rejected all connections, whether commercial or political, however beneficial or alluring the terms might be.

At present the emperors of Japan are as despotic as any of the dairi ever were. It has been already observed, that as the emperor has a great number of petty prin-

ces and nobles, who have absolute power in their several governments, the greatest care is taken to keep them in due submission. Of these twenty-one bear the title of kings, six are princes, four are dukes, seventeen are counts, and forty-one are lords, or something equivalent to these dignities, besides a great number of noblemen of inferior rank. The emperor's council consists of the former, who are obliged to attend in their turns, and have always four of the kingly dignity at their head.—The emperor's standing forces, including garrisons, &c. consist of 100,000 foot, and 20,000 horse; but in time of war each of the governors of the provinces is obliged to bring into the field a body of horse and foot completely armed, proportionable to the extent of his province, or to the pension he receives from the emperor; which, in the whole, amount to 368,000 foot, and 38,000 horse. Their weapons are fire-arms, javelins, bows and arrows, sabres and daggers. The cavalry wear cuirasses, and the foot helmets, finely wrought.

From what has been before observed, the reader may form some idea of the numerous court of this monarch in his capital, since it must consist of one half of the princes and nobility of the empire, together with all their families, beside his own officers and guards, which generally amount to about 5 or 6000 men. He has many palaces magnificently built and furnished, in which the royal apartment, halls of audience, &c. are enriched with every thing curious and costly in art or nature. The ceilings are generally plated with gold, finely wrought, and embellished with precious stones; and the beds, screens, and cabinets, with the gardens, walks, ponds, fountains, terraces, groves, and summer-houses, are answerable to the grandeur of the place. But of all the royal palaces that of Jedo is the largest and noblest: the rest, though grand and sumptuous, are used as houses of pleasure, for his diversion in hunting, fishing, and other recreations.

To this time the emperors allow the dairi to be treated with the same profound veneration that was

formerly paid him in ancient times: for though he has lost the greatest branch of his power, and is only head over all religious matters, while the emperor enjoys not only the imperial dignity, but the government both in civil and military affairs, yet he is allowed to preserve his pristine grandeur. He is not suffered to set his foot on the ground, and wherever he goes, is carried on men's shoulders. He is kept so retired, that the sun is not thought worthy to shine on his head, or the wind to blow upon him. He never wears the same clothes above one day, or eats above once out of the same dishes, all the vessels and utensils of his table being new every day: but these, though very clean and neat, are made only of common clay, and are generally broken; for they imagine, that if any layman should presume to eat his food out of those sacred dishes, it would swell and inflame his mouth and throat. He is addressed in pompous titles little short of blasphemy; and all, except the emperor, when they speak to him in public, prostrate themselves flat on the ground; beside, as every thing belonging to his person is esteemed sacred, he never shaves his beard, cuts his hair, or pares his nails. He is chiefly served by his twelve wives, whom he marries with great solemnity; and, like the other monarchs of the east, keeps them as much as possible concealed.

Upon the decease of the dairi, the ministry of that ecclesiastical court choose for his successor the next heir, without regard to age or sex; hence it has often happened, that a prince under age, or a young unmarried princess, has ascended the throne; and there are instances where the deceased dairi's relict has succeeded her husband.

All who belong to the dairi's court are clothed after a particular manner, and their habits are very different from those of secular princes, whom they scorn and despise, as descending from a mean and unholy extraction. They wear long wide drawers, and a large gown with a sweeping train, which they trail after them on the

ground. Their heads are covered with a black lackered cap, by the shape of which, among other marks of distinction, their degree of rank is known, as well as what post they enjoy. Some have a large band of black silk or crape sewed to their caps, which either hangs down behind their shoulders, or is tied up. Others have a kind of flap, like a fan, standing out before their eyes. Some have a sort of scarf hanging down before from their shoulders, the length of which differs according to the quality of the wearer: for it is the custom of this court, that nobody bows lower than just to touch the floor with the end of his scarf. The dress of the women of this court is also different from that of secular women; particularly the dairi's twelve wives, who when full dressed, are so loaded with large wide gowns of silk, interwoven with flowers of gold and silver, that they are quite embarrassed in walking.

An application to different kinds of learning form the chief amusement of the dairi's court; and not only the courtiers, but many of the fair sex, have acquired great reputation by their poetical, historical, and other writings. All the almanacks were formerly made there; but though this is not now the case, they must receive the approbation of the court. Here a taste for music prevails, and the women in particular play with great dexterity on all the musical instruments they are acquainted with; the young noblemen also divert themselves by riding, running races, dancing, and other exercises. The Japanese lay claim to the invention of gun-powder; they greatly excel the Chinese in the use of fire-arms, and are good engineers. Their ingenuity and skill are likewise eminently displayed in their fireworks.

When the dairi was sole master of the country, he honoured with his sacred presence whatever city he pleased; and it seldom happened that two succeeding emperors chose the same place of residence. The dairi's court is now fixed at Miaco, where he has a large and spacious palace, which is distinguished by a lofty and

magnificent tower. His imperial consort lives with him in the same palace, and the palaces of his other wives are situated next to his. At a small distance are the houses of the lords whose offices require a constant and more immediate attendance on his person; there are also a number of other palaces and streets, divided among the officers belonging to the court according to their rank, all of which are separated from Miaco, and defended against the sudden approach of an enemy, by walls, gates, ditches, and ramparts. The secular monarch constantly keeps a strong guard of soldiers at the dairi's court, in appearance out of tenderness and care for the preservation and safety of his sacred person and family; but, doubtless, with a view to prevent all attempts for the recovery of the supreme authority.

Every imperial city is committed to the care of two governors; Nagasaki alone has three. These have the command of the city by turns, each generally for the space of two years. When that time is expired, the presiding governor delivers up his power and apartment in the palace to his successor, and immediately sets out for Jedo, to make the usual presents, and give an account of the most material transactions in his government. He continues at Jedo about six months, during which time he is permitted to live with his family: but as soon as he receives orders from the council of state to repair to his last government, or to any other, he must depart, leaving his wife and children at Jedo till his return, in a manner as hostages for his fidelity; nay, while he is in his government, he is to admit no woman within the space of his residence, on pain of incurring the imperial displeasure; the fatal consequences of which are no less than imprisonment, banishment, or death, with the entire ruin of his family; it being esteemed beneath the majesty of the emperor to inflict slighter punishments on the least disregard shewn to his commands. The salary of each governor is but small; but his perquisites are so considerable, that in a few years he might amass great estates, but for the presents which must be

made to the emperor and the grandees of his court; and being obliged to keep up all that state and grandeur which is thought becoming the dignity of the employment, and the majesty of the supreme head.

Under the imperial governors are four magistrates, and their deputies. These magistrates hold their office a year; but they are obliged daily to communicate to the governor every thing that comes before them; and in difficult cases, or where they cannot agree among themselves, to lay the cause before the emperor's bench or court of justice, or, with the consent of that court, to leave it to the determination of the governor in the last resort. All civil affairs are brought before this imperial court of judicature, which, having examined the parties and their witnesses, gives judgment according to the laws of the empire, and their imperial orders and proclamations. From this court there is no appeal; but those who have received sentence of death cannot be executed without a warrant signed by the council of state at Jedo, which council must be also consulted in all affairs of great moment.

The deputies of the magistrates are next to them in authority, but enjoy their posts for life. It is one branch of their office to compose differences of small consequence arising in that part of the town committed to their care.

Next to these are four officers, who enjoy their post only one year, and are appointed by the magistrates to make a faithful report in their name to the governor, of the daily transactions in the execution of their office; and being also a kind of representatives of the people, whose interest they are to promote at the governor's court, they have a small room assigned them in his palace, where two of them constantly attend till the governor is at leisure to receive the messages they are to deliver in the name of the magistrates, or the petitions they present to him in the name of private persons.

The police and regulations observed in every street, in order to keep a watchful eye over the conduct of

the inhabitants, and to relieve the governors, magistrates, and other chief officers, in the discharge of their duty, are very strict. For these purposes the following officers are appointed for every street: the principal is the ottona, who gives the necessary orders in case of fire, sees that a regular watch be kept at night, and that the orders of the governors and magistrates be punctually executed. He keeps books, in which he registers marriages, the births of children, deaths, persons who travel, or remove out of the street; and the names, births, and trades, of such new inhabitants as settle in it. When slight differences arise between the inhabitants of his street, he summons the parties before him and, in conjunction with the deputies of the magistrates, endeavours, if possible, to reconcile them. He punishes small crimes by seizing the criminals, and putting them in irons. He causes criminals to be taken up by his own people within his district, and confines them till he receives farther orders from the superior magistrates, before whom he lays all criminal affairs and cases of moment; and is himself answerable for what accidents happen within the street under his inspection. He is chosen by the inhabitants of that street from among themselves, each of them writing upon a piece of paper the name of the person who is the object of his choice, adding his own name and seal. The votes are all taken in, the papers opened, and the names of the two who have most votes are laid before the governor, with the petition of the inhabitants, that he would be pleased to nominate one of them as ottona.

Every ottona has three deputies, who give him their advice and assistance in the execution of his office.

The inhabitants of every street are divided into companies, from each of which five men are selected: there are ten or fifteen companies in every street: but though these are termed companies of five, a few more of the neighbours are frequently added, so that they consist of ten or fifteen heads of families, all of whom must be the

proprietors of the ground and houses in which they live; for those who have no houses of their own, notwithstanding their being inhabitants of the street, are not admitted into those corporations, but considered as tenants dependent on the landlords, and are therefore exempted from taxes and other burdens, except the night-watch and round, in which they are obliged to serve themselves, or procure a substitute, it being a duty which all the inhabitants are required to observe in rotation. These tenants have no vote in the election of the officers of the street, nor any share in the public money. Each of these little companies has one of its own body at its head, who is answerable for its actions; and if they be contrary to law, he shares with the rest of the members the penalty they are sentenced to undergo by the supreme magistrate.

There is likewise a secretary, or public notary, in every street, who writes and publishes the commands of the ottona to the inhabitants of the street, and gives passports, testimonials, and letters of dismission. The next officer is the treasurer of the street, who keeps the public money, and from time to time accounts for it to the rest of the inhabitants, specifying the sums he has received and paid. The inhabitants serve this office each a year in turn. There is another officer, named "the messenger of the street," who is to give information of every death, or any occurrence that is thought worth noticing. He also delivers to the chief officers the petitions of the inhabitants of the street, collects the contribution money for the present which at certain times is made to the governors and chief magistrates, delivers the commands of the magistrates to the heads of the companies, and publishes them in the street.

If an inhabitant designs to remove from the house and street in which he lives, to another, he must first apply to the ottona of the other street, and making him a present of a dish of fish, give him a petition, expressing his desire to be admitted among the inhabitants of that street. The ottona, upon this, makes inquiry into

his life, character, and conduct, and then sends his messenger of the street to every one of the inhabitants, desiring to know if they will consent to admit the petitioner as a neighbour; and if any one of the inhabitants opposes his admission, urging that he is a drunkard, quarrelsome, or addicted to any other irregularity, and that he will not be answerable for the consequences, it is sufficient to exclude him. But if he obtains all their consents, the petitioner must apply to the public notary of his former street for a certificate of his behaviour, and obtain a letter of admission, both signed by the ottona, and these must be carried by the street-messenger to the ottona of the street to which the petitioner intends to remove; upon which he receives him under his protection, and incorporates him among the inhabitants of his street. Meanwhile he is not answerable for the petitioner's behaviour before his delivery of those instruments; and should he be found guilty of any crime committed before that time, it would be laid to the charge of the street in which he formerly lived. After his being admitted among the inhabitants of the new street, and his name entered in the register-book, he solemnises his entry with a handsome dinner, which he gives either to the company of five, or, if he pleases, to the whole street. His greatest trouble, however, still remains, and that is selling his old house; for this cannot be done without the consent of all the inhabitants of the street, who often oppose it for upwards of a year, the buyer, for whose crimes they are for the future to suffer, not being sufficiently known, or not agreeable to them. Supposing all obstacles at length removed, the buyer is to pay an eighth part of the price into the public treasury of the street, five parts of which are to be equally distributed among the inhabitants, for the pains they have taken on account of the purchaser's admission, and the three remaining parts are allotted for a public dinner. This, however, is seldom given: but the new inhabitant has no sooner taken possession of his house, than all his

neighbours come to wish him joy, and to offer him their services.

When an inhabitant of a street is accused of any misdemeanor, his case is laid before the street council, that is, the ottona, his three deputies, and the heads of the small companies; when, if the affair be too intricate for them to determine, they lay it before the council of the town; if they meet with the same difficulties, the Nengiosi, or four annual officers under the magistrates, are desired to confer upon the affair, assisted by some of the stewards of the governor's household, and if they find it necessary, to communicate it to the governor himself.

If quarrels or disputes arise in the street, either between the inhabitants or strangers, the next neighbours are obliged to part them; for if one should happen to be killed, though it were the aggressor, the other must inevitably suffer death, notwithstanding his alledging it was done in his own defence; and he knows no other method of preventing the shame of a public execution, than by ripping up his own belly. Nor is his death thought sufficient satisfaction to their laws: three of those families who live next to the place where the accident happened, are shut up in their houses for three, four, or more months, and rough boards nailed across their doors and windows, after they have prepared for this imprisonment by providing necessary provisions; and the rest of the inhabitants of the same street are sentenced to pass some days or months in hard labour upon the public works; These penalties are inflicted in proportion to their guilt, in not endeavouring to the utmost of their power to prevent the fatal consequences of such a quarrel. A like punishment, but greater in degree, is inflicted on the heads of the companies of five in that street where the crime was committed; and it is an high aggravation of their guilt and punishment, if they knew before-hand that the persons were of a quarrelsome disposition, or, in other cases, were inclined to the crime for which they suffer. The landlords, and

also the masters of the criminal, partake of the punishment inflicted for the misdemeanors of their lodgers and servants. Whoever draws his sword, though he does not hurt or even touch his enemy, must, if the fact be proved, suffer death. If an inhabitant flies from justice, the head of the company of five to which he belongs must pursue him, or hire people to follow him till he be found, and delivered up to the civil magistrate, under pain of corporal punishment.

RELIGION OF THE JAPANESE.] Their religion is in general the grossest heathenism and idolatry; but religious liberty, so far as it has no interference with the interest of the secular government, or does not affect the peace and tranquility of the empire, has always been allowed in Japan: hence foreign religions have been easily introduced, and propagated with success; there are therefore many religions in Japan, the principal of which are the three following.

I. The Sinto, or ancient idol-worship of the Japanese.

II. The Bubso, or foreign idol-worship, introduced into Japan from the empire of China and the kingdom of Siam; and,

III. The religion of their philosophers and moralists.

I. The religion of the Sintos deserves to be first spoken of, more on account of its antiquity, than for the number of its professors. These have some obscure and imperfect notions of the immortality of the soul, and a future state of bliss or misery, and yet worship only those gods whom they believe are peculiarly concerned in the government of the world; for though they acknowledge a Supreme Being, who they believe dwells in the highest heaven, and admit of some inferior gods, whom they place among the stars; yet they do not worship and adore them, nor have they any festival-days sacred to them, thinking that beings so much above mankind will concern themselves but little about human affairs. They, however, swear by these su-

perior gods; but they worship and invoke those gods alone whom they believe to have the sovereign control over this world, its elements, productions, and animals; these they suppose will not only render them happy here, but, by interceding for them at the hour of death, may procure them a happy condition in the next state of existence, in reward of their proper conduct here. Hence their dairis, or ecclesiastical emperors, being esteemed lineally descended from the eldest and most favoured sons of these deities, the supposed heirs of their excellent qualities, are considered as the true and living images of their gods, and possessed of such an eminent degree of holiness, that none of the people dare presume to appear in their presence. In short, the whole system of the Sinto's divinity is a lame and ridiculous jumble of absurdities, and most probably would not have subsisted so long, had it not been so closely connected with those civil customs, in the observance of which this nation is scrupulously exact.

The temples of the Sintoists are exceedingly mean; within them is hung up white paper, cut into small pieces, as emblems of the purity of the place; and sometimes there is a large mirror in the middle, that the worshippers, when they behold themselves, may consider, that as distinctly as all their bodily defects appear in the mirror, so conspicuously do the secret stains of their hearts appear before the eyes of the immortal gods. These temples are frequently without any visible idols of the gods to whom they are consecrated, they being locked up in a case at the upper end, and to this case the people bow. These temples are not attended by priests, but by seculars, who are, with very few exceptions, utterly ignorant of the principles of the religion they profess, and unacquainted with the history of the gods they worship. These, when they go abroad, are dressed, for distinction sake, in large gowns, commonly white, but sometimes yellow, and of other colours; occasionally under these they wear

their common secular dress. They shave their beards; but let their hair grow, and wear a stiff, oblong, lackered cap, resembling in shape a ship, tied under their chins with twisted silk strings, terminated with tassels, which hang lower or higher according to the office or quality of the person who wears them, who is not obliged to bow lower to persons of superior rank than to make these tassels touch the floor. Their superiors have their hair twisted under black gauze or crape, in a very particular manner; and have their ears covered by a kind of flap, which stands out or hangs, according to the dignities or honourable titles conferred upon them by the dairi. They are under his direction in spiritual affairs; but in temporals they, and all the other ecclesiastical persons in the empire, are under the command of two imperial judges, appointed by the secular emperor. Their haughtiness and pride exceed description; when they appear in a secular dress, they, like the nobles, wear two sabres, and think it becomes their station to shun all communication and intimacy with the common people.

The Sintoists do not adhere to the doctrine of the transmigration of souls; yet abstain from killing and eating those beasts that are of service to mankind, because they imagine that slaying them would be an act of cruelty and ingratitude. They believe that the soul, after quitting the body, is removed to the high sub-celestial fields, seated just beneath the thirty-three heavens, the dwelling places of their gods; that those who have led a good life find an immediate admission, while the souls of the wicked and impious are denied entrance, and condemned to wander till they have expiated their crimes; but they do not believe in a hell or place of torment. One of the essential points of their religion, is, that they ought to preserve an inward purity of heart, and to practice or abstain from whatever the dictates of reason, or the express command of the civil magistrate, direct or forbid. They have no formulary, either by divine or ecclesiastical authority, for regulating their social con-

duct. Hence it might be imagined, that they would indulge, without scruple, the gratification of their wishes and desires, unrestrained by the dread of acting contrary to the will of the gods, and feeling no apprehension of incurring their displeasure; but they have an active principle in their own breasts, which preserves them in the habitual exercise of virtuous and good actions, and restrains them from the practice of vice.

Another essential point of the Sinto's religion, is a rigorous abstinence from whatever renders a man impure. This consists in abstaining from blood, from eating flesh, or being near a dead body; by which a person is for a time rendered unfit to go to the temples, to visit holy places, and to appear in the presence of the gods. Whoever is stained with his own or another's blood, is for seven days unfit to approach the holy places; and if, in building a temple, one of the workmen happens to receive a hurt, by which blood is drawn, he is from thenceforward incapacitated from working on that sacred building; but if the same accident should happen in building or repairing any of the Sinto's temples at Isje, the temple itself must be pulled down and rebuilt. Whoever eats the flesh of any four-footed beast, deer only excepted, is unclean for thirty days: yet whoever eats of a wild or tame fowl, water-fowl, crane, or pheasant, is unclean only a Japanese hour, which is equal to two of ours. Whoever kills a beast, or is present at an execution, attends a dying person, or enters a house where a dead body lies, is unclean for that day; and the nearer a person is related to the deceased, so much the greater is the impurity. By the neglect of these precepts, people are rendered guilty of external defilement, which they say is detested by the gods, and renders men unfit to approach their temples.

The Budso, or foreign pagan-worship introduced into Japan, probably owes its origin to Budha, whom the Brahmins of India believe to be Wisthnu, their deity, who, they say, made his ninth appearance in the

world under the form of a man of that name. The Chinese and Japanese call him Buds and Siaka, which names indeed at length became a common epithet for all gods and idols in general brought from foreign countries, and sometimes they were given to the pretended saints who preached these new doctrines.

The most essential points of this religion, are, that the souls of men and animals are immortal, and both of the same substance, differing only according to the bodies in which they are placed; and that after the souls of mankind have left their bodies, they shall be rewarded or punished according to their behaviour in this life, by being introduced to a state of happiness or misery. This state of happiness they call a place of eternal pleasures; and say, that as the gods differ in their nature, and the souls of men in virtue, so also do the degrees of pleasure in the state of bliss, in order that every one may be rewarded according to his deserts: yet they consider the whole place as so entirely filled with felicity, that each happy inhabitant thinks his portion best, and is so far from envying the superior happiness of others, that all his wishes are confined to having his own happiness rendered perpetual. Their god Amida is the sovereign commander of these blissful regions, and is considered as the patron and protector of human souls, but more particularly as the god and father of those who are happily removed to a state of felicity. These maintain, that leading a virtuous life, and doing nothing contrary to the five commandments, is the only way to become agreeable to Amida, and to render themselves worthy of eternal happiness.

On the other hand, all persons, whether priests or laymen, who, by their sinful lives and vicious actions, have rendered themselves unworthy of the pleasures prepared for the virtuous, are, after death, sent to a place of misery, there to be confined and tormented during a certain indefinite time, where every one is to be punished according to the nature and number of his crimes, the number of years he lived upon earth, his station there,

and his opportunities for becoming good and virtuous. To Jemma, who is the severe judge of this place of misery, the vicious actions of mankind appear with all their aggravating circumstances, by means of a large mirror, called "the mirror of knowledge," which is placed before him. Yet the miseries of the unhappy souls confined to these gloomy prisons, they imagine, may be greatly alleviated by the good actions and virtuous lives of their family, their friends and relations, whom they left behind; but nothing, they are taught, is so conducive to this desirable end, as the prayers and offerings of the priests to the great and good Amida, who can prevail on the almost inexorable judge to treat the imprisoned souls with somewhat less severity than their crimes deserve, and to send them speedily again into the world. For when they have been confined in these infernal prisons a time sufficient to expiate their crimes, they are sentenced by Jemma to return to this earth, and animate those creatures whose nature is most nearly allied to their former sinful inclinations; as, for instance, toads, serpents, insects, four-footed beasts, birds, and fishes. From the vilest of these, transmigrating into others and nobler, they at last are suffered again to enter human bodies, and thus have it in their power, either by their virtue and piety to obtain an uninterrupted state of felicity, or, by a new course of vices, once more to expose themselves to all the miseries of confinement in a place of torment, succeeded by a new unhappy transmigration.

The five commandments of the law of Buds, or Siaka, which are the standing rule of the life and behaviour of all his faithful followers, are, 1. Not to kill any thing that has life. 2. Not to steal. 3. Not to commit fornication. 4. To avoid lies, and all falsehood: and, 5. Not to drink strong liquors: which last Siaka very strongly enjoins upon his disciples.

Beside these chief and general commandments, there are ten counsels or admonitions, which are only these five laws amplified, and applied to more particular ac-

tions, all tending to a stricter observance of virtue. A still father subdivision hath been made of these laws into five hundred counsels and admonitions, in which are specified, with the utmost exactness, whatever, according to their notions, has the least tendency to virtue or vice. But the number of these admonitions being so very great, it is not surprising that those who are distinguished for observing them are very few; the rather, as they tend to such a thorough mortification of their bodies, as to measure and prescribe the minutest part of their diet, and scarcely to allow them the food necessary to support life.

Of the followers of Siaka there are several sects, all of which have their temples, their convents, and their priests: and of all their religious buildings in the country, these temples, with their adjoining convents, are the most remarkable, as being far superior to all others, from their stately height, curious roofs, and numberless ornaments, which agreeably surprise the beholder; such as are built within cities or villages generally stand on a rising ground, and in the most conspicuous places. They are all most agreeably situated: a fine view of the adjacent country, with the neighbourhood of a wood, a clear rivulet, and pleasant walks, being essential requisites in the site of these temples: for with such situations, they say, the gods are delighted; and the priests readily adopt the same opinion. Beautiful staircases of stone lead up to these structures, and several small temples, or chapels, are built within the court; these are adorned with gilt images, lackered columns, gates, and pillars, all very neat, but rather pretty than magnificent. Both the principal temple, and those smaller ones that are dependent on it, are built of the best cedars and firs; and in the midst of the large temple stands a fine altar, with one or more gilt idols upon it, and a beautiful candlestick with sweet scented candles burning before it. These temples are frequently supported by a great number of pillars, and are so neatly adorned, that a man might fancy himself transported

into a Romish church, did not the monstrous shape of the idols convince him of the contrary. One of these temples, erected at Miaco, is esteemed the most sumptuous in the empire. It is built with free-stone; the roof is bold and lofty. It stands on the top of a hill, and on each side of the ascent are lofty pillars of free-stone, ten paces distant from each other; and on the top of each a large lantern, which makes a fine appearance at night, being then lighted up. The temple itself is supported by a number of pillars, and contains many idols, among which is one of gilt copper, of a prodigious size, seated in a chair eighty feet broad, and seventy feet in height. No less than fifteen men may stand on the head of this colossus, whose thumb is fourteen inches in circumference, and the body and limbs of this monstrous figure in proportion. Indeed the whole country abounds with idols, which are to be found not only in temples, but in public and private buildings, in streets, markets, and along the highways. People are, however, not required to prostrate themselves before them, or to pay them any other than voluntary respect.

III. The religion of the philosophers and moralists is very different from that of the two former; for they pay no regard to any of the forms of worship practised in the country. The supreme good, say they, consists in that pleasure and delight that arises from the steady practice of virtue; they maintain that men are obliged to be virtuous, because nature has endowed them with reason, that by living according to its dictates they might shew their superiority to the irrational inhabitants of the earth. They do not admit of transmigration of souls, but believe that there is an universal soul diffused through all nature, which animates all things, and which re-assumes departed souls, as the sea does the rivers.—This universal spirit they confound with the Supreme Being. These philosophers not only admit of self-murder, but consider it as an heroic and commendable action, when it is the only honourable means of avoiding a

shameful death, or of escaping from the hands of a victorious enemy.

They conform to the general custom of the country in commemorating their deceased parents and relations, by placing all sorts of provisions, both raw and dressed, on a table provided for that purpose; and by monthly or anniversary dinners, to which are invited the family and friends of the deceased, who all appear in their best garments, having previously washed and purified themselves, for three days, during which they abstain from lying with their wives, and from every thing held to be impure.

They celebrate no other festivals, nor pay any respect to the gods of the country. Being formerly suspected of favouring the Christian religion, they are obliged to have each an idol, or at least the name of one, put up in a conspicuous and honourable place in their houses, with a flower-pot and censer before them; but in their public schools is hung up the picture of Confucius. This sect was formerly very numerous. Arts and sciences were cultivated among them, and the most enlightened part of the nation was of that profession; but the dreadful persecution of the Christians greatly weakened it, and it has been declining ever since: the extreme rigour of the imperial edicts makes people in general cautious of reading their books, which were formerly the delight and admiration of the nation, and held in as great esteem as the writings of Socrates and Plato are in Europe.—*Payne.*

CHAPTER XXXIV.

VENICE.

The same cause which overthrew the Roman empire, gave existence to Venice. About the middle of the fifth century, the Venetii, a people inhabiting a small district

of Italy, a few Paduans, and some peasants on the banks of the Po, to escape from the fury of Attila, repaired to the marshes and small islands which lay on the western coast, at the bottom of the Adriatic gulf. All the inhabitants they found here were some fishermen, who had erected a few huts on one of those islands, which had received the name of Rialto. Soon after, the city of Padua sent a colony thither, and appointed some of their citizens to act as magistrates, who held their dignity for a year, and were succeeded by others. On the taking of Aquileia by the Huns under Attila, a vast resort of wretched fugitives increased the population of the place, and in the year 452 the city of Venice was founded. The Paduans, considering that little settlement as having been established by their patronage, claimed a right of sovereignty, which was soon disputed by the new state, and shortly after renounced on the part of the claimants, through inability to enforce their pretensions. The Venetians then became an independent republic, and, such is the vicissitude of states, became in a few years masters of the territories of Padua. Even the commotions which agitated, in a greater or less degree, most parts of the continent of Europe, during the three centuries which succeeded its establishment, so far from involving Venice in wars, or endangering its security, signally promoted its wealth and its power. The genius of the people, stimulated by unparalleled advantages of situation, prompted them to commercial pursuits, and they soon became the greatest maritime state on the globe.

Its original form of government was purely democratical: magistrates were chosen by a general assembly of the people, who gave them the name of Tribunes: one of whom was appointed to preside on each island, but to hold his office only for a year; then another general election was made; and each tribune was accountable for his conduct while in office, to the general assembly of the people. This form of government subsisted for about one hundred and fifty years; it then appeared expedient to make choice of a chief magistrate, and on

him the title of Duke was conferred, which has since been corrupted to Doge: this dignity was elective, and held for life: he was even entrusted with the power of nominating to all offices, and of making peace and declaring war. Paul Luke Anafesto was the first duke, who was elected in the year 697. Such was the confidence which the people reposed in their duke, that he was at liberty to use his own discretion how far he would avail himself of the advice of the citizens. In the councils which he called on any matters of importance, he sent messages to those citizens for whose judgment he had the greatest esteem, praying that they would come and assist him with their advice. This form was retained by succeeding doges, and the citizens so sent for were called Pregadi (from the Italian word pregare, to pray.) The third doge, whose talents for war had proved successful in extending the power of the republic, at length meditated to assume a more absolute sway, and to render the supreme authority hereditary in his family; but such conduct excited a general alarm in the people: he was assaulted in his palace, and there put to death. This event caused the government of Venice to be new modelled, and a chief magistrate, who was now called "Master of the Militia," was elected annually; but his power whilst in office was the same as before.—Such form of government continued only five years, when the title of doge was revived, A. D. 730, in the person of the son of him who had been assassinated.

About the latter end of the twelfth century, when every other part of the Christian world was seized with a frantic rage for recovering the holy land, the Venetians were so far from contributing any forces for the crusades, that they did not scruple to supply the Saracens with arms, ammunition, and every other necessary. As the power of the state augmented by the acquisition of Istria, and many parts of Dalmatia, the jealousy of the people towards their doge became stronger. At that time the only tribunal at Venice consisted of forty judges; these were called "The Council of Forty;" but in

the year 1173, another doge, named Michieli, being assassinated in a popular insurrection, the council of forty found means to new model the government, by gaining the consent of the people to delegate the right of voting for magistrates, which each citizen possessed, to four hundred and seventy persons, called Counsellors, who received the appellation of "the grand council;" and acting as delegates of the people, became what the general assembly of the people until that time had been. By this artful innovation (which the people were cajoled into an acquiescence with, by retaining the right of electing these counsellors annually) the democracy became presently subverted; and an aristocracy, in its fullest and most rigid form, was introduced, by restricting the power of the doge, and instituting a variety of officers (all of whom were, in a short time, chosen from among the nobility) which effectually controlled both the prince and the people.

Ziani was the first doge elected after the government had received, what the event proves to have been, its permanent modification; and during his administration the singular ceremony of espousing the sea, which has been annually observed ever since, was first adopted, and took its rise from the assistance which the Venetians gave to Pope Alexander III. when hard pressed by the emperor Frederic Barbarossa, and the signal victory they obtained over a formidable fleet under the command of Otho, son of Frederic, in which the admiral and thirty of his ships were taken. Alexander, with the whole city of Venice, went out to meet Ziani, the conqueror, on his return; to whom his holiness presented a ring, saying, "Use this ring as a chain to retain the sea, henceforth, in subjection to the Venetian state; espouse her with this ring, and let the marriage be solemnized annually, by you and your successors, to the end of time, that the latest posterity may know that Venice has acquired the empire of the waves, and holds the sea in subjection, in the same manner as a wife is held by her husband."

The Venetians having extended their territories into Lombardy, Istria, and Dalmatia, became masters of many of the islands in the Archipelago, particularly the large and important one of Candia; they were masters of the Morea; and, in the beginning of the thirteenth century, Dandolo, their doge, when more than eighty years of age, in conjunction with the French, took Constantinople from the Turks. About which time they engrossed the lucrative trade in the manufactures and productions of the East Indies, which they procured at the port of Alexandria, and conveyed to every market of Europe.

Under Marino Morosini was introduced the present form of electing the doge, and at this juncture jealousy and envy occasioned the war with Genoa, which, after continuing a hundred and thirty years, was at last concluded by a treaty in 1381. During this war, doge Peter Gradonigo procured a law to be passed in 1296, that none but the nobility should be capable of having a seat in the grand council; and thus the government became altogether aristocratical.

Thus has the republic of Venice continued upwards of thirteen hundred years, amidst many foreign wars and intestine commotions; its grandeur was chiefly owing to its trade, and, since the decline of that, its strength and power have suffered a considerable diminution. No republic in the history of the world has subsisted for so long a space of time; and, as its independence was not founded on usurpation, nor cemented with blood, so its descent from that splendor and power which it had once attained, to its present contracted state, instead of degrading, reflects the highest honour on the government as well as the people. None of the causes which subverted the famous republics of antiquity effected the decline of this state. No tyrants enslaved, no demagogues deluded, no luxuries enervated them. They owed their greatness to their industry, bravery, and maritime skill; and their decline, to the revolutions which successful pursuits of science had produced in the nations of Eu-

rope. For many years they withstood the whole force of the Ottoman empire by sea and by land; and, although their treasures have been exhausted, and their power weakened, their enemies have experienced consequences scarcely less fatal.

No government has been more attacked by deep-laid and formidable conspiracies than that of Venice; many of which have been brought to the very eve of execution without discovery or suspicion. But though the entire subversion of the state has been, at times, impending from some of these plots, yet they have been constantly rendered abortive, either by the vigilance or good fortune of the senate. One of the most remarkable of these conspiracies was formed by a doge named Marino Falliero, in the year 1355, who at that time was eighty years of age; but, conceiving a violent resentment against the senate, he formed a plan in order to assassinate the whole body. The design was timely discovered, and the dignified hoary traitor was brought to trial, found guilty upon his own confession, and publicly beheaded. In the great chamber of the palace, where the portraits of the doges are placed, there is a vacant space between the predecessor and successor of this man, where appears this inscription, "Locus Marini Fallieri decapitari." "The place intended for the portrait of Marinus Fallierus, who was beheaded," The year 1617 is also distinguished by a no less remarkable conspiracy, the contriver and principal agent in which was the marquis Bedamar, the Spanish ambassador residing there. The elegant pen of abbé St. Real has transmitted to posterity this very curious instance of superior talents and consummate artifice, which were, for a long course of time, exercised in effecting the most atrocious deed, being no less than the total destruction of the republic. Otway has formed a very pathetic tragedy upon this story, in which the character of Belvidera, and the love scenes between her and Jaffier, are the only fictions of the poet: and Priuli was really the doge, whom the poet ranks as a senator.

CONSTITUTION.—In this republic the power is lodged in the hands of the nobility, who, according to Mr. Sharp, amount to above fifteen hundred, including those whose public employments in the provinces oblige them to reside out of Venice. On the birth of the son of a nobleman his name is entered in the golden book, otherwise he forfeits his nobility. Every noble is a member of the senate, on which account it is a received maxim, that they are all of equal dignity; yet there is a considerable difference between the interest and authority of families. To the first class belong the ancient houses whose ancestors chose the first duke, and thence are called "le case eletterali:" these consist of twelve families, and on them preferable to others are conferred the higher offices. There are four other families who pretend to an equality with these, they being very little inferior to them in point of antiquity. Next follow eight houses nearly of the same antiquity. Duke Gradenigo having passed a law that the council should for ever consist of the families of which it was then composed, and some others which he emobled; this produced a second class of nobility, which consists of upwards of eighty families, and with these are also included the descendants of those who were raised to nobility after the war with the Genoese, on account of their large contributions towards carrying it on with vigour. The third and last class is composed of the citizens, whose nobility has been purchased for an hundred thousand Venetian ducats; a resource which the republic has made use of in necessitous times for raising money. German and other princes, and even crowned heads, have thought it no degradation to be made nobles of Venice.

The nobility, such as counts and marquisses, in the territories of the republic, though some of them are of very ancient families, are now under great restrictions, to prevent their attempting any thing to the detriment of the state. They are excluded from all offices, and when at Venice are required to shew a great deference and

respect to the lowest order of nobility, treating each as one of their sovereigns.

In order as much as possible to prevent all intrigues in the election of a doge, or duke, the ceremony is conducted in the following manner: Upon the decease of a doge, the nobles above thirty years of age meet in the palace of St. Mark, where a number of balls, equal to that of the persons present, are put into an urn. Thirty of these are gilt, and the others silvered over. Every noble, according to his seniority, draws a ball; and they who have drawn the thirty gilt balls retire into a private room to continue the election; but in drawing the gilt balls, lest more than one person of a family should happen to be appointed electors, the relations of him who draws a gilt ball are obliged to withdraw, and an equal number of white balls are taken out of the vessel as there are persons thus disqualified. The thirty nobles who drew the gilt balls then draw from another urn in which are twenty-one silvered and nine gilt balls: they who draw the gilded choose forty other electors, all of different families, but are allowed to name themselves of the number; and each of the four who drew first has a right of nominating five electors; but the five others can name only four each. These forty electors are again by lot reduced to twelve, who name twenty-five; the first nominating three, and each of the other two. These twenty-five draw lots a second time to be reduced to nine, and of these nine each choose five others; and from the total forty-five, eleven are again separated by lot, who choose forty-one others, who are confirmed by the grand council, and being locked up in a particular apartment of the ducal palace, there remain till they have chosen a new doge. This is done by each of the electors writing the name of the person he nominates on a paper which he puts into an urn; two of the body, who have been previously chosen, and are called secretaries, then open the ballots, and select all the different names which are found, which are generally but a few, and

without paying any attention to that name which has the greatest number of suffrages, these are put into another urn, and being shaken together, one paper is drawn, and being read aloud, this individual is balloted for, and if there are twenty-five votes in his favour he is elected, otherwise another name is drawn, and so on till the appointed number of votes is procured for one person. The result of their determination is generally known in six or eight hours, and all the foregoing ceremonies seldom take up more than two days. This election is followed by a kind of coronation, the ducal cap being placed with great ceremony on the head of the new doge, on the upper step of the entrance into St. Mark's church.

The doge of Venice has little more than the shadow of greatness, and has justly been defined to be in habit and state a king, in authority a counsellor, in the city a prisoner, and out of it a private person. He is not so much as to stir from the city without the council's permission; it is not in his power to pardon a criminal; all his counsellors have a constant eye over his actions, and may visit his closet every hour: he is as much subject to the laws as the meanest person, and when he dies there is no public mourning.

Nothing can more strongly evince the natural fondness of the human heart for external splendour, than that the dignity of a Venetian doge is coveted, even under the disagreeable restrictions which are laid upon it. The state of the doge on all public occasions is indeed very magnificent: he is the president of all councils, and in the great council has two votes. All the courts stand up in his presence, and pay their obeisance to him. Beside, he never rises from his seat, or takes off his cap, except at the elevation of the host, before a prince of the royal-blood, or a cardinal, to whom he also gives the right hand. His name is also stamped on the republic's money. All the credentials of the republic's ministers to foreign courts are made out in his name, though they are neither signed nor sealed by him. The letters of

the republic's ministers, and other instruments from foreign princes, are directed to him; yet he is not to open them but in the presence of the council. He has the disposal of all preferments in St. Mark's church, of which he is invested with the entire jurisdiction; and the knights of St. Mark are created by him alone. He likewise fills up the lower offices belonging to the palace: and lastly, his family is not subject to any sumptuary laws. His annual income is twelve thousand Venetian ducats: of this sum he cannot spend less than one-half on the four grand entertainments he is obliged to give every year; and to support his dignity in a proper manner, the remainder is so far from being sufficient, that his own private fortune must be drawn upon considerably.

Among the other restrictions laid on the doge are the following: During his life none of his children or brothers can hold any of the great honorary offices, nor be sent on embassies. He is not to marry the sister or relation of a prince, without the consent of the great council; nor can he receive any present from a foreign prince. In state affairs he cannot transact the least matter without the council; nor can he resign, though he may be deposed. In general his authority is no greater than that of a private person, except he has such abilities as to influence the whole council; then indeed his authority is paramount; but persons capable of gaining such an ascendancy are seldom chosen. On the death of the doge, a formal enquiry is made, by six persons, chosen for the purpose, and called correctors, whether he has abused his power; whether, from a care of his own concerns, he has neglected those of the public; whether he has lived agreeably to his dignity, &c. If found guilty of any mal-administration, a fine is levied on his heirs, proportioned to the nature of the charges exhibited. Such are the actual restrictions and impending dangers, which a doge of Venice must submit to! and the person duly elected is not to decline it.

On Ascension-day, the doge, or, in case of his illness, the vice-doge, who is always one of the six consiglieri, performs the annual ceremony of marrying the Adriatic Sea, in a barge called the bucentaur, which is pompously gilt and carved. At about ten in the morning, the signal being given by the firing of great guns, and ringing of bells, he goes on board of this vessel, and, accompanied by several thousand barks and gondolas, a great number of gallies finely ornamented, and the splendid yachts of foreign ambassadors, is rowed out to sea, about two hundred paces toward the islands of St. Lido and St. Erasmo. The patriarch and dignified clergy come on board the bucentaur, and present the doge and signoria, as they pass, with nosegays or artificial flowers, which at their return they make presents of to their acquaintance. The doge, at his putting off and return, is saluted by the cannon of a fort on the Lido, and by those on the island Erasmo, and with the small arms of the soldiers, who are drawn up along the Lido shore.—These islands lie about two Italian miles from the city. An eminence on the island of Lido affords a distinct view of this pompous procession, and of the vast number of boats, &c. which covering the surface of the water make a beautiful appearance. In the mean time several hymns are performed on board the bucentaur, by the band of music belonging to St. Mark's church, and several prayers, appointed for the occasion, are read or sung, till the doge has passed the two forts of Lido and St. Erasmo; and then he proceeds a little farther towards the Lido shore, the stern of his barge being turned towards the main sea.

Here the patriarch pours into the sea some holy water, which is said to have the virtue of preventing and allaying storms. After this the doge, through an aperture near his seat, drops into the sea a gold ring of a few dollars value, saying, in Latin, "We espouse thee, O sea, "in token of our real and perpetual dominion over "thee." After this the procession returns, and the doge with his company land near the church of St. Ni-

cholas, in the island of Lido, where the patriarch in person celebrates a solemn mass. In the evening the principal members of the council, and all who waited upthe doge in the bucentaur, are entertained at the ducal palace.

In the grand council all nobles of twenty-five years of age may take their place. It usually meets on Sundays and holidays in the large hall of the ducal palace.

The senate or pregadi, are a committee of the grand council, by whom they are chosen, and have the management of the most secret and important affairs of state, as the making of alliances, declaring war, concluding peace, coining money, imposing taxes, &c. They consist of sixty ordinary, and as many extraordinary members: besides the nine procurators of St. Mark, the collegium, the doge's six counsellors, the il consiglio di dieci, the censors, the judges della quarantia criminale, and other inferior judges, so that the whole senate consists of about three hundred persons.

Mr. Addison observes, that among all the instances of their politics, there is none more admirable than the great secresy which reigns in their public councils.—"The senate," says he, "is generally as numerous as our house of commons, if we only reckon the sitting members, and yet carries its resolutions so privately, that they are seldom known till they discover themselves in the execution. He gives an instance of their beholding a great debate concerning the punishment of one of their admirals, which continued a month, and concluded in his condemnation: yet none of his friends, nor of those who had engaged warmly in his defence, gave him the least intimation of what was passing against him, till he was actually seized, and in the hands of justice."

The consiglio di dieci, or council of ten," is a high penal court, which consists of ten counsellors; the doge, who is president; and his six conglieri, or counsellors. It is supreme in all state crimes, and possesses the power of seizing any one who is accused before

them, of committing him to close confinement, and prohibiting all communication with his relations and friends, of examining and trying him in a summary manner, and, if a majority of the council pronounce him guilty, of condemning him to death, and they may order the execution to be either public or private, as they see proper. This formidable tribunal was established in the year 1310.—*Payne.*

We turn with horror from a recital of these arbitrary powers, and congratulate ourselves that we live in a country whose laws are mild, wholesome, and beneficent; whose legislators are chosen by the people, for short periods; and where the object of the governors is to afford the governed the greatest quantity of human happiness at the least possible expence. Free and highly-favoured America! May these blessings be perpetuated to the end of time! May thy rulers (imbibing the spirit of Washington, Wallace, Nelson, and Montgomery*) be men eminent for their virtues, their talents, and their patriotism; and may thy citizens, untainted by foreign influence, or party-spirit, be ever ready at thy call to "do their duty."

---

* The two former persevered, as commanders in chief, till they had secured the freedom of their respective countries, and then retired to private life! The two latter fell, fighting valiantly in the cause of their native and adopted countries.

CHRONOLOGY.

As History gives an account of the revolutions and events which have happened in the world, so chronology points out with precision, the precise period when such events took place.—The following table will be found of great utility in ascertaining the exact period of most of the memorable occurrences in both ancient and modern history:—We trust it may be relied on as strictly correct.

A CHRONOLOGICAL SERIES

OF

PRINCIPAL EVENTS,

From the Creation to the present Period.

Years before Christ.

4004 The creation of the World.
4003 The birth of Cain; the first who was born of a woman.
2348 The Universal Deluge.
2247 The building of Babel.
2217 Nimrod supposed to have built Babylon, and founded the Babylonish monarchy, and Assur to have built Nineveh, and founded the monarchy of Assyria.
2188 Menes, the son of Ham (in Scripture, Misraim) founds the monarchy of Egypt.
2084 The Shepherd kings conquer Egypt.
1996 The birth of Abraham.
1856 Inachus founds the kingdom of Argos in Greece.
1571 Moses born in Egypt.
1556 Cecrops founds the kingdom of Athens.
1529 The deluge of Deucalion in Thessaly.
1493 Cadmus builds Thebes, and introduces letters into Greece.
1491 Moses brings the Israelites out of Egypt.
1453 The first Olympic games celebrated in Greece.
1452 The Pentateuch, or Five Books of Moses written.
1451 The Israelites led into the land of Canaan by Joshua.
1325 The Egyptian canicular year began July 20.
1266 Œdipus marries his mother Jocasta, and reigns in Thebes.
1263 The Argonautic expedition. (According to the Newtonian chronology, 937.)
1252 Tyre, the capital of Phœnicia, built.

Years before Christ.

1233 Carthage supposed to be founded by Dido.
1215 Semiramis supposed to have reigned at Babylon.
1193 The Trojan war begins.
1184 Troy taken and burnt by the Greeks.
1182 Æneas lands in Italy.
1069 Codrus, king of Athens, devotes himself for his country.
1055 David, king of Israel
1004 Dedication of Solomon's temple.
886 Homer's poems brought from Asia into Greece.
776 The first Olympiad begins in this year.
752 The foundation of Rome by Romulus.
721 Salmanazar takes Samaria, and carries the ten tribes into captivity, which puts an end to the Israelitish kingdom.
667 The combat between the Horatii and Curiatii.
606 Nebuchadnezzar takes Jerusalem, and carries the Jews into captivity.
601 Battle between the Medes and Lydians, who are separated by a great eclipse of the sun, predicted by Thales. (Newton. Chron. 585.)
— End of the Assyrian empire. Nineveh taken by Nebuchadnezzar.
599 Birth of Cyrus the Great.
572 Nebuchadnezzar subdues Egypt.
566 The first census at Rome.—84,700 citizens.
562 Comedies first exhibited at Athens by Thespis.
538 Babylon taken by Cyrus. End of the Babylonian empire.
536 Cyrus ascends the throne of Persia. He puts an end to the Jewish captivity, which had lasted seventy years.
520 The Jews begin to build the second temple, which is finished in four years.
510 The Pisistratidæ expelled from Athens, and the democracy restored.
509 The Tarquins expelled from Rome, and the regal government abolished.
498 The first dictator created at Rome (Lartius).
497 Institution of the Saturnalia at Rome.
488 The first tribunes of the people created at Rome. (According to Blair, Playfair, &c. 493).
486 Xerxes succeeds his father Darius in the kingdom of Persia.
480 The Spartans, under Leonidas, cut to pieces at Thermopylæ.
— Naval victory gained by the Greeks over the Persians at Salamis.
471 Volero, the Roman tribune, obtains a law for the election of magistrates in the comita held by tribes.
470 Cimon, son of Miltiades, defeats the Persian army and fleet in one day, at the mouth of the river Eurymedon.
469 Capua founded by the Tuscans,
456 Cincinnatus dictator at Rome.
455 Commencement of the seventy prophetical weeks of Daniel.

Years before Christ.

453 The number of the tribunes of the people of Rome increased from five to ten.
452 The two books of Chronicles supposed to have been written at this time by Ezra.
451 Creation of the decemviri at Rome, and compilation of the laws of the twelve tables.
431 The Peloponnesian war begins, which lasted twenty-seven years.
430 The history of the Old Testament ends about this time.
403 Lysander takes Athens.—Government of the thirty tyrants.
401 Persecution and death of Socrates.
385 Rome taken by the Gauls under Brennus.
385 War of the allies against Athens.
—— Philip of Macedon takes Amphipolis, Pydna, and Potida.
356 Alexander the Great born at Pella, in Macedonia.
—— The temple of Diana, at Ephesus, burnt by Erostratus.
——. The Phocian or sacred war begins in Greece.
343 Syracuse taken by Timoleon, and Dionysius the tyrant banished.
338 Battle of Cheronœa gained by Philip over the Athenians and Thebans.
335 Alexander chosen generalissimo by the states of Greece.
—— Decius devotes himself for his country.
334 Alexander the Great dies at Babylon.
320 Ptolemy carries 100,000 Jews captive into Egypt.
285 The astronomical æra of Dionysius of Alexandria.
277 The translation of the Septuagint made by order of Ptolemy Philadelphus. (Blair, 284.)
266 Silver money is coined at Rome for the first time.
264 The first Punic war begins.—The Chronicle of Paros composed.
260 First naval victory obtained by the Romans under the consul Duilius.
240 Comedies are first acted at Rome.
235 The temple of Janus shut for the first time since the reign of Numa.
216 Battle of Cannæ, in which the Romans are totally defeated by Hannibal.
196 The battle of Zama, and end of the second Punic war.
190 The Romans enter Asia, and defeat Antigonus at Magnesia.
173 War between the Romans and Perseus king of Macedon.
170 Antiochus Epiphanes takes and plunders Jerusalem.
169 Terence's comedies performed at Rome.
167 Perseus defeated by Paulus Emilius, and brought prisoner to Rome. End of the kingdom of Macedon.
166 Judas Maccabeus drives the Syrians out of Judea.
149 The third Punic war begins.
146 Corinth taken by the consul Mummius.
—— Carthage taken and destroyed by the Romans.
135 The history of the Apocrypha ends.

Years before Christ.

88 Civil war between Marius and Sylla.
Sylla takes possession of Rome.
82 Sylla perpetual dictator.—His horrible proscription.
80 Julius Cæsar makes his first campaign.
72 Lucullus repeatedly defeats Mithridates, and reduces Pontus to a Roman province.
70 Crassus and Pompey chosen consuls at Rome.
62 Cataline's conspiracy quelled at Rome by Cicero.
59 The first triumvirate: Pompey, Crassus, and Cæsar.
54 Cæsar lands in Britain.
49 Cæsar passes the Rubicon, and marches to Rome.
48 Battle of Pharsalia, in which Pompey is defeated.
— The Alexandrian library burnt.
44 Julius Cæsar killed in the Senate-house.
43 Second triumvirate: Octavius, Mark Antony and Lepidus.
42 Battle of Philippi, in which Brutus and Cassius are defeated.
31 Battle of Actium, and end of the Roman Commonwealth.
— Octavius emperor.
30 Death of Mark Antony and Cleopatra. Alexandria taken by Octavius.
27 Octavius receives the title of Augustus.
17 Augustus revives the secular games.
8 Census at Rome, when the number of the citizens was found to be 4,233,000.
4 JESUS CHRIST is born 4 years before the commencement of the vulgar æra.

FIRST CENTURY OF THE VULGAR CHRISTIAN ÆRA.

Years after Christ.

9 The Roman legions, under Varus, cut to pieces in Germany.
— Ovid the poet banished to Pontus.
14 Tiberius emperor.
— Tiberius banishes the Jews from Rome.
26 John the Baptist preaches in Judea the coming of the Messiah.
31 Sejanus disgraced and put to death by Tiberius.
33 Jesus Christ is crucified.
35 The conversion of St. Paul.
39 St. Matthew writes his Gospel.
42 Claudius emperor.
43 ——— his expedition into Britain.
44 St. Mark writes his Gospel.
48 Messalina put to death by Claudius, who marries Agrippina, the mother of Nero.
51 Caractacus, the British king, is carried prisoner to Rome.
59 Nero puts to death his mother Agrippina.

A. D.
61 The Britons, under queen Boadicea, defeat the Romans.
64 The first persecution of the Christians raised by Nero.
67 Massacre of the Jews by Florus, at Cesarea, Ptolemais and Alexandria.
—St. Peter and St. Paul put to death.
— Josephus, the Jewish historian, governor of Galilee.
70 Jerusalem taken and destroyed by Titus.
79 Herculaneum and Pompeii destroyed by an eruption of Vesuvius.
80 Conquests of Agricola in Britain.
95 Dreadful persecution of the Christians at Rome and in the provinces.

100 SECOND CENTURY.

107 Trajan's victories in Asia.
118 Adrian emperor.
120 Adrian's wall built across the island of Britain.
137 Adrian rebuilds Jerusalem by the name of Ælia Capitolina.
138 Antoninus Pius emperor.
141 The heresies of the Ophites, Cainites, Sethians, &c. appeared.
154 Justin Martyr publishes his apology for the Christians.
161 Marcus Aurelius Antoninus, and Lucius Verus, emperors.
171 Death of Verus. Marcus Aurelius sole emperor.
180 Commodus emperor.
189 The Saracens defeat the Romans.—This people for the first time mentioned in history.
193 Pertinax emperor.—Didius Julianus purchases the empire.
—— Pescennius Niger declared emperor in the east.
—— Septimius Severus emperor.
196 Albinus proclaimed emperor in Britain.
197 ——— defeated by Severus. He kills himself.

200 THIRD CENTURY.

208 Severus, with his sons Caracalla and Geta, in Britain.
209 The Caledonians repulsed, and a wall built by Severus between the rivers Forth and Clyde
226 The Persians totally defeated by Alexander Severus.
235 Maximinus assassinates Alexander Severus, and is proclaimed emperor.
241 The Franks were first mentioned in history.
253 The Goths, Burgundians, &c. make an irruption into Mœsia and Pannonia.
261 Sapor, the Persian, takes Antioch, Tarsus, and Cesarea.
284 Dioclesian emperor.
—— Aug. 29, or Sept. 17, the Dioclesian æra commenced.

A. D.
292 Partition of the empire between two Emperors and two Cæsars.
295 Alexandria in Egypt taken by Dioclesian.

300 FOURTH CENTURY.

304 Resignation of Dioclesian and Maximian.
—— Galerius and Constantius emperors.
306 Constantine emperor.—Stops the persecution of the Christians.
325 ———— assembles the first general council of Nice, where the doctrines of Arius are condemned.
329 The seat of empire removed to Constantinople.
337 Death of Constantine.—The empire divided among his three sons.
357 The Germans defeated by Julian, at Strasburg.
361 Julian emperor.—Abjures Christianity, and is elected pontifex maximus.
363 Jovian emperor.
383 The Huns over-run Mesopotamia. They are defeated by the Goths.
392 Theodosius emperor of the east and west.
395 Arcadius emperor of the east, and Honorius of the west.
—— The Huns invade the eastern provinces.

400 FIFTH CENTURY.

—— Alaric, the Goth, ravages Italy.
410 Rome sacked and burnt by Alaric.—Death of Alaric.
411 The Vandals settled in Spain.
416 The Pelagian heresy condemned by the bishops of Africa.
420 Pharamond, first king of the Franks, supposed to have begun his reign.
426. The Romans withdraw the legions from Britain.
428 The Franks defeated by Ætius the Roman general.
435 Publication of the Theodosian code.
449 Merovæus king of the Franks.
450 Marcian emperor of the east.
—— Attila the Hun, called the Scourge of God, ravages Germany and France.
451 The Saxons arrive in Britain under the command of Hengist and Horsa.
452 Foundation of the city of Venice.
455 Rome taken and plundered by Genseric the Vandal.
468 Euric, king of the Visigoths, drives the Romans out of Spain.
470 Ælla, the Saxon, takes possession of the kingdom of Sussex.
471 Ælla defeats all the British princes.
472 Great eruption of Mount Vesuvius, which was seen from Constantinople.
476 Rome taken by Odoacer king of the Heruli.

A. D.
476 Extinction of the Western Empire.
481 Clovis king of the Franks.
488 Theodoric, the Ostrogoth, entirely defeats Odoacer, and is acknowledged king of Italy by the emperor Zeno.
497 Clovis and the Franks converted to Christianity.
499 Alliance between Clovis and Theodoric the Great.

500 SIXTH CENTURY.

508 Clovis defeated by Theodoric the Great in the battle of Arles.
510 Paris is made the capital of the kingdom of the Franks.
511 Death of Clovis; the kingdom divided between his four sons.
515 Arthur, king of the Britons, supposed to have begun his reign.
516 The computation of time by the Christian æra is introduced by Dionysius the Monk.
529 Belisarius, general of Justinian, defeats the Persians.
—— The books of the civil law published by Justinian.
537 Belisarius subdues the Ostrogoths in Italy, and takes Rome.
540 ——— refuses to accept the crown of Italy.
543 Totila, the Goth, recovers Italy from the Romans.
547 —— takes and plunders Rome.
551 The manufacture of silk introduced into Europe.
568 Narses, recalled from Italy, invites the Lombards to take possession of the country.
568 Italy conquered by the Lombards.
571 Birth of Mahomet, the false prophet.
580 The Latin tongue ceased to be spoken in Italy about this time.
597 Augustine, the monk, converts the Saxons to Christianity.

600 SEVENTH CENTURY.

602 Phocas emperor.—Acknowledges the supremacy of the popes.
607 The temple of the Pantheon, at Rome, dedicated to God, the Virgin, and all the saints.
609 The Jews of Antioch massacre the Christians.
616 Jerusalem taken by the Persians, under Cosroes II.
622 Æra of the Hegira, or flight of Mahomet from Mecca to Medina.
632 Death of Mahomet.—Abubekir succeeds him as caliph of the Saracens.
636 Jerusalem taken by Omar and the Saracens, who keep possession of it 463 years.
640 The library of Alexandria, founded by Ptolemy Philadelphus, is burnt by the Saracens.
645 Otman succeeds Omar in the caliphate.
653 The Saracens take Rhodes.
654 Childeric II. king of Austrasia.
685 The Britons, totally subdued by the Saxons, retreat into Wales and Cornwall.

A. D.

700 EIGHTH CENTURY.

713 Spain conquered by the Saracens under Muca, the general of the caliph Walid.
726 The emperor Leo, the Isaurian, orders the images in the Christian churches to be thrown down.
727 Civil war against Leo on that account.
742 Constantine Copronymus emperor, succeeds Leo.
—— Charlemagne born.
751 Pepin le Bref king of France; the founder of the Carlovingian race.
772 Charles (Charlemagne) sole monarch of France.
774 Charlemagne defeats Desiderius, and puts an end to the kingdom of the Lombards.
775 Leo IV. emperor, succeeds Constantine Copronymus.
779 Charlemagne conquers Navarre and Sardinia.
781 Re-establishment of the worship of images by Irene.
785 Charlemagne entirely subdues the Saxons.
787 The seventh general council, or second of Nice, is held.
788 Irene puts to death her son Constantine, and is proclaimed sole empress.
793 Irene deposed and confined to a monastery.
—— Nicephorus emperor.
794 Charlemagne defeats and extirpates the Huns.

800 NINTH CENTURY.

—— New empire of the west.—Charlemagne crowned emperor at Rome.
814 Lewis le Debonnaire emperor of the west.
827 The kingdoms of the Saxon Heptarchy united under Egbert.
838 The Scots entirely subdue the Picts.
842 Germany separated from the empire of the Franks.—Lewis of Bavaria, emperor of Germany.
867 The Danes begin to ravage England.
886 The university of Oxford founded by Alfred.
887 The Normans besiege Paris, which is gallantly defended by bishop Goslin and count Eudes.
890 Alfred the Great composes his code of laws, and divides England into counties, hundreds, and tithings.

900 TENTH CENTURY.

—— Lewis IV. emperor of Germany.
901 Edward the Elder succeeds Alfred in the kingdom of England.
975 Pope Boniface deposed and banished for his crimes.
987 Hugh Capet king of France, founder of the third race of the French kings.
991 The Arabic numeral cyphers first introduced into Europe by the Saracens.

A. D.

1000 ELEVENTH CENTURY.

1002 Great massacre of the Danes by Ethelred king of England.
1017 Canute, the Dane, king of England.
1025 Musical characters invented by Guido Aretino.
1040 Macbeth usurps the throne of Scotland.
1041 The Saxon line of the English monarchs restored under Edward the Confessor.
1043 The Turks, under Tangrolipix, take possession of Persia.
1054 Leo IX. the first pope who maintained a regular army.
1065 The Turks take Jerusalem from the Saracens.
1066 The conquest of England by William duke of Normandy.
1070 The feudal law introduced into England.
1086 Doomsday-book completed by William the Conqueror.
1087 William II. (Rufus) king of England, succeeds William the Conqueror.
1095 The first crusade to the Holy Land.—Peter the Hermit.
1099 Jerusalem taken by Godfrey of Bouillon.

1100 TWELFTH CENTURY.

—— Henry I. (Beauclerc) king of England.
1107 Alexander I. king of Scotland.
1118 The order of the Knights Templars instituted.
1139 Alphonso, first king of Portugal, rescues that kingdom from the Saracens.
1140 The canon law first introduced into England.
1141 Stephen, king of England, taken prisoner in the battle of Lincoln.
1147 The second crusade excited by St. Bernard.
1150 The study of the civil law is revived at Bologna.
1152 Frederic Barbarossa, emperor of Germany.
1164 Institution of the order of Teutonic knights in Germany.
1165 William the Lion king of Scotland.
1172 Conquest of Ireland by Henry II.
1187 The city of Jerusalem taken by Saladin.
1189 Richard I. (Cœur de Lion) king of England.
—— The third crusade, under Richard I. and Philip Augustus.
1192 Richard I. defeats Saladin in the battle of Ascalon in Judea.

1200 THIRTEENTH CENTURY.

1202 The fourth crusade sets out from Venice.
—— Constantinople taken by the Turks and Venetians.
1208 London incorporated. Obtains a charter for electing its mayor and magistrates.
1215 Magna Charta signed by king John.
1227 The Tartars under Gengis-Khan, over-run the empire of the Saracens.

A. D.
1234 The Inquisition committed to the Dominican monks.
1258 Bagdat taken by the Tartars.—End of the empire of the Saracens.
1263 The Norwegians invade Scotland, and are defeated by Alexander III.
1264 The deputies of towns and boroughs first summoned to the English parliament.
1273 Rodolph of Hapsburg, emperor of Germany, the first of the Austrian family.
1282 The Sicilian vespers, when 8000 French were massacred.
1283 The conquest of Wales by Edward I.
1291 Ptolemais taken by the Turks.—End of the crusades.
1293 From this year there is a regular succession of English parliaments.
1298 The present Turkish empire begins in Bithynia under Ottoman.
—— William Wallace regent of Scotland.

1300 FOURTEENTH CENTURY.

1302 The mariners compass said to be discovered at Naples.
1307 The establishment of the Swiss republics.
1310 The knights of St. John take the island of Rhodes.
1314 Battle of Bannockburn, in which the Scots defeat the English.
1340 Gunpowder invented by Swartz, a monk of Cologne.
1346 Battle of Cressy won by Edward III. and the Black Prince, over the French, August 26.
1347 The Admiralty Court, Doctors Commons, instituted in England.
1350 The order of the garter instituted in England, April 23.
1352 The Turks first enter Europe.
1356 The battle of Poictiers, in which John II. king of France, is taken prisoner, September 19.
1362 The law pleadings in England changed from French to English.
1377 The seat of the popes was removed from Avignon to Rome.
1381 Wat Tyler's insurrection in England, July.
—— Bills of exchange were first used in England.
1383 Cannon were first used in the English service by the governor of Calais.
1388 Battle of Otterburn between Percy (Hotspur) and Douglas, July 31.

1400 FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

1402 Bajazet taken prisoner by Tamerlane in the battle of Angora, July 28.
1415 Henry V. defeats the French at Agincourt, Oct. 25.
—— John Huss condemned and burnt for heresy, July 6.
1416 Jerome of Prague burnt for heresy.
1420 The Portuguese discover the island of Madeira.

A. D.
1421 The revenue of England amounted to only 55,754*l.*
1428 Joan of Arc compels the English to raise the siege of Orleans.
1436 Paris recovered from the English by the French.
1439 The pragmatic sanction established in France.
1440 Invention of the art of printing by John Guttenburg at Strasburg.
1453 Constantinople taken by the Turks, May 29.
—— Extinction of the Eastern empire.
1485 Henry VII. king of England. Union of the houses of York and Lancaster.
1491 Grenada taken by Ferdinand and Isabella. End of the kingdom of the Moors in Spain.
1492 Hispaniola and Cuba discovered by Christopher Columbus.
1494 Algebra first known in Europe.
1497 The Portuguese, under Vasco de Gama, double the Cape of Good Hope, and sail to the East Indies.
1499 Sebastian Cabot lands in North America,

1500 SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

——Maximilian divides Germany into six circles, and adds four more in 1512.
1517 The reformation in Germany begun by Luther.
1519 Charles V. king of Spain, elected Emperor of Germany.
1520 The massacre of Stockholm by Christian II. and archbishop Trollo.
1522 The first voyage round the world performed by a ship of Magellan's squadron.
1527 Rome taken and plundered by Charles V.
1529 Peace of Cambray.—The reformed first termed Protestants.
1534 The reformation in England under Henry VIII.
1540 Dissolution of the monasteries in England.
1545 The council of Trent begins, and continues eighteen years.
1546 Cardinal Beaton, archbishop of St. Andrews, assassinated.
1560 The reformation completed in Scotland by John Knox.
1566 The first commotions begin in the Netherlands.
1572 The massacre of St. Bartholomew at Paris.
1576 The league against the Protestants begins in France.
1579 The commencement of the republic of Holland, by the union of Utrecht.
1580 The world circumnavigated by Sir Francis Drake.
1582 The new style introduced into Italy by pope Gregory XIII.; Oct. 5 being reckoned Oct. 15.
1584 William I, prince of Orange, murdered at Delft.
1587 Mary queen of Scots beheaded, Feb. 8.
1588 Destruction of the Spanish armada, July 17.
1589 Henry III. of France murdered by Jaques Clement.
1598 Edict of Nantes, tolerating the Protestants in France.

A. D.
1600 SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

1602 Decimal arithmetic invented at Bruges.
1603 James I. king of Great Britain. Union of the crowns of England and Scotland.
1605 The gunpowder-plot discovered.
1608 Galileo discovers the satellites of Jupiter.
1610 Henry IV. of France murdered by Ravaillac.
1611 Baronets first created in England by James I.
1614 Logarithms invented by Napier, baron of Merchistoun.
1616 Settlement of Virginia by sir Walter Raleigh.
1618 The synod of Dort in Holland.
1619 Discovery of the circulation of the blood by Dr. Harvey.
1625 The island of Barbadoes planted :—the first English settlement in the West-Indies.
1632 Gustavus Adolphus killed in the battle of Lutzen.
1633 Galileo condemned by the inquisition at Rome.
—— Louisiana discovered by the French.
1642 Beginning of the civil war in England.—Battle of Edgehill, Oct. 23.
1649 Charles I. of England beheaded, Jan. 30.
—— The commonwealth of England begins, March 17.
1652 The first war betwixt the English and Dutch.
1653 End of the commonwealth of England.—Oliver Cromwell lord protector, Dec. 13.
1655 The English under admiral Penn, take possession of Jamaica, May 7.
1660 Charles II. king of Great Britain.—Restoration of monarchy.
—— The king of Denmark declared absolute, and the throne hereditary, Oct. 13, O. S.
1662 The Royal Society instituted in England.
1663 Carolina planted.
1666 Sabatei Levi pretends to be the Messiah in Turkey.
—— The Scotch covenanters defeated on Pentland hills.
1667 The peace of Breda, which confirms to the English, Pennsylvania, New York, and New-Jersey.
1668 The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, April 22, O. S.
1678 The Habeas-Corpus act passed in England.
1682 Peter the Great czar of Muscovy.
1683 Execution of lord Russel and Algernon Sydney.
1689 Battle of Gilliecrankie.—The Viscount of Dundee slain, July 27.
1690 Battle of the Boyne, July 1.
1692 Battle of La Hogue, May 19.
1694 The bank of England incorporated.

A. D
1700 EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

1703 Gibraltar taken by admiral Rooke, July 24.
—— Battle of Blenheim, August 2, won by the duke of Marlborough and allies.
1706 Battle of Ramilies, May 12.
—— The treaty of union between England and Scotland, signed July 22.
1709 Battle of Pultowa, in which Charles XII. is beaten by Peter the Great, June 30.
—— Battle of Malplaquet won by the duke of Marlborough and the allies, September 11.
1714 George I. elector of Hanover, king of Great Britain.
1715 The rebellion in Scotland.—Battle of Sheriff-muir, November 13.
1718 Charles XII of Sweden killed at the siege of Frederickshall.
1720 The South-Sea scheme breaks up.
1727 Inoculation first tried on criminals with success.
—— Russia, formerly a dukedom, now established as an empire.
1732 Kouli-Khan usurps the throne of Persia, conquers the Mogul empire, and returns with two hundred and thirty-one millions sterling.
—— The settlement of Georgia, in North America, began.
1736 Captain Porteus having ordered his soldiers to fire upon the populace at an execution of a smuggler, is himself hanged by a mob at Edinburgh.
1738 Westminster-bridge began; finished in 1750.
1745 Rebellion in Scotland.—The pretender's army defeated at Culloden, April 16, 1746.
1752 The new style introduced into England, the third of September being counted the fourteenth.
1756 Lisbon destroyed by an earthquake.
1757 Damien's conspiracy against the king of France, January 5.
1759 General Wolfe defeated the French, and took Quebec, Sep. 17.
1760 A transit of Venus over the Sun, June 6.
—— George III. king of Great Britain, Oct. 25.
1762 War declared by England against Spain.
—— Martinico surrendered to the English.
—— Peace between Great Britain and France, at Fontainbleau, Nov. 3.
1763 The peace of Paris, between Great Britain, France, and Spain, acceded to by Portugal, Feb. 10.
—— The expulsion of the Jesuits from France completed.
1764 Famine and pestilence in Italy.
—— Byron made discoveries in the Pacific Ocean.
1765 The American stamp-act repealed, March 18.
1768 The Royal Academy of Arts at Lonnon.
—— The Jesuists are expelled from Naples, Malta, and Parma.

A. D.

1768 Bougainville made discoveries in the Pacific Ocean.
1769 Cook made discoveries in the Pacific Ocean.
1771 An emigration of 500,000 Tourgouths, from the coast of the Caspian Sea to the frontiers of China.
1772 A revolution in Sweden, August 19.
—— Poland dismembered by the empress of Russia, the king of Prussia, and the house of Austria.
1773 Cook made discoveries in the Pacific Ocean, and sailed to 71 degrees 10 minutes south latitude.
—— A comet appeared, August 15.
1776 The Americans declared themselves independent, July 4.
1778 Treaty of alliance between the French king and the American states, Oct. 30.
—— Engagement of the English and French fleets off Brest, July 27.
1779 A tremendous eruption of Mount Vesuvius, August 8.
—— The siege of Gibraltar by the Spaniards began in July.
1780 Admiral Rodney defeated the Spanish fleet, and took 22 sail, Jan. 16.
—— Charleston, in America, surrendered to the English, May 12.
—— An insurrection and riot in London.
1780 War was declared in England against the Dutch, Decem. 20.
—— Tobago taken by the French.
—— The English army, under the command of Lord Cornwallis, surrendered to the united forces of France and America, at York-town, Oct. 18.
1782 Admiral Rodney defeated the French fleet commanded by count de Grasse, off Dominica, April 12.
1783 Peace between Great Britain, France, and Spain.
—— America declared independent, by Great Britain, Jan. 20.
—— A dreadful earthquake in Sicily.—Messina destroyed, Feb. 5.
1784 Ardchindschan, in Turkey, destroyed by an earthquake, and 12,000 persons buried in its ruins.
—— Hail-stones as large as hens' eggs fell at Iram in the Pyrenees, July 18.
1785 Sunday schools first established in England.
1786 Margaret Nicholson, a mad woman, attempted to stab the king of England, August 2.
1787 A most dreadful storm in Normandy, August 4.
1788 The notables of France convened by the king.
1789 The French revolution commenced July 4, and the Bastile taken.
1790 Religious houses abolished in France.
1791 The king and Royal family of France attempt to escape out of the kingdom, but were brought back by force, June 22.
1792 Louis XVI. renounced the sovereignty of France, August 10.
—— A dreadful plague in Egypt, of which nearly 300,000 dies.

A. D.

1793 The king of France beheaded, January 21st, and the queen October 16th, following.

—— War commenced between England and France.

1794 Lord Howe defeated the French fleet, June 1.

1795 Gold discovered in the Wicklow mountains in Ireland.

1796 Five Dutch men-of-war, and several frigates, in Saldana bay, surrendered to the English Admiral Elphinston, Aug. 19.

1797 Admiral Duncan took and destroyed fifteen Dutch ships of the line, October 11.

1798 Admiral Nelson totally defeated the French in the mouth of the Nile, August 1.

1799 George Washington, late President of the United States, and commander in chief of the American forces during the revolutionary war, died at his country seat, "Mount Vernon" in Virginia, December 22, aged 68 years.

—— Seringapatam, in the East Indies, taken by the English May 16. A plague at Fez, of which died 247,000 persons.

1800 NINETEENTH CENTURY.

—— The society called "The Royal institution of Great Britain," founded March 11.

—— The king of England shot at with a horse pistol, by a madman of the name of Hatfield, at Drury-lane Theatre, May 15.

—— Memorable battle of Marengo, gained by general Bonaparte.

—— Vaccine innoculation, by Dr. Jenner, comes into general use in Europe.

1801 Union of Great Britain and Ireland, January 1.

—— Copenhagen blockaded by Lord Nelson, April 2.

—— The French troops completely vanquished in Egypt by general Hutchinson, and compelled to return to France, Sept. 3.

1802 Peace proclaimed in London, April 29.

1803 Louisiana purchased by the United States for fifteen millions of dollars.

1804 Napoleon Bonaparte was crowned emperor of the French (at Paris) September 2. He was born in the island of Corsica, August 15, 1769.

—— Major general Alexander Hamilton, late secretary of the Treasury of the United States, died July 12.

1805 Admiral Lord Nelson was slain at the battle of Trafalgar, October 21.

1806 William Pitt, the English Premier, died Jan. 23, in the 47th year of his age, 23 of which he had ruled the British empire with an influence unprecedented in the annals of modern history.

A. D.

1806 Charles James Fox, the English minister of foreign relations, died September 13. He and Mr. Pitt were considered as stars of the first magnitude in the political horizon: The former was regarded as the friend of the people, and was a statesman of consummate abilities.

1807 A most bloody, and decisive battle was fought at the town of *Friedland*, in Poland, betwixt the Russians and the French.

—— A Treaty of Peace between France and Prussia, signed, at Tilsit, July 12th.

—— A Treaty of Peace between France and Russia, was signed about the same time.

FINIS.

APPENDIX.

THE events which have sprung out of the French Revolution, have produced such a change in the political condition of Europe; and these events succeed each other with such rapidity, that we have found it necessary toa dd an APPENDIX to our Work; that we might bring the History of Europe to as late a period of time as possible.

ENGLAND.

THE liberal policy of the English ministry, of which the late CHARLES JAMES FOX was the leader, induced them to endeavour to remove, or to lessen, the obnoxious tests and disqualifications which for a long time had deprived the state of the services of a very large proportion of its people, the Dissenters and the Roman Catholics. After the death of that illustrious statesman, his colleagues proposed to introduce a bill into parliament to this effect, and submittted an outline of it to the king for his opinion. His majesty, considering that his assent to the passing of such a bill, would be a violation of his coronation oath, which obliges him to preserve undiminished the privileges of the church, of which he is the constitutional head, and believing his ministers were attempting to entrap his conscience, gave the measure his decided disapprobation, dismissed its authors from his councils, formed a new ministry, and by dissolving parliament, appealed to the sense of his people for the rectitude of his conduct. The new parliament accordingly met on the 22d of June, 1807, but were soon after

prorogued to the 14th of August, and afterwards still further prorogued to the 24th of September.

In the interim, a general peace (with the exception of Sweden) has taken place on the continent of Europe; and England is left to continue the contest alone against a power by whom that continent has been completely subjugated, and with men at the head of her councils who are supposed to be inimical to peace.

Circumstances have also recently occurred which place Great-Britain in a very unpleasant situation with respect to two powers who have hitherto remained neutral during the war. We allude to the United States and the kingdom of Denmark. An unwarrantable attack has been made upon the national sovereignty of the former, which we shall notice in its proper place; and a powerful fleet has been sent to the Baltic, to compel the latter to relinquish its neutrality. What the consequence of these measures may be, it is impossible for us at the present crisis to know, and we are not disposed to amuse the reader with idle conjecture.

The following estimate of the annual value of some of the principal manufactures in England, and of the number of persons employed in them, is chiefly founded on official returns.

	Annual Value.	*Persons Employed.*
Woollen	16,400,000	440,340
Cotton	10,000,000	347,271
Leather	10,500,000	241,818
Iron, tin, and lead	10,000,000	200,000
Steel, plating, &c.	4,000,000	70,000
Copper and brass	3,600,000	60,000
Linen and flax	3,000,000	95,000
Silk	2,700,000	65,000
Hemp	1,600,000	35,000
Potteries	2,000,000	45,000
Glass	1,500,000	36,000
Paper	900,000	30,000
	66,200,000	1,665,429

The annual value of other manufactures of less importance, is estimated at four or five millions, and the number of persons employed in them to about one hundred thousand.

The public revenue of England was, in the year 1100, three hundred thousand pounds sterling; during the three following centuries, one hundred thousand pounds; in 1500, four hundred thousand pounds; in 1600, five hundred thousand pounds; in 1700, four millions; and in 1800, thirty millions.

UNITED STATES.

The unpleasant affair, to which we have alluded in our remarks upon England, and which in its consequences may possibly involve

the two countries in hostilities, is an attack made upon the United States frigate Chesapeake, commodore Barron, by the British ship of war Leopard, on the 22d of June, 1807. A demand was made at sea by the captain of the Leopard, for permission to examine the Chesapeake's crew, on pretence that she had on board sundry deserters from British ships of war then lying in Hampton Roads or at Halifax. Commodore Barron refused his consent to so unprecedented a demand, as being contrary to the orders of his government and to the acknowledged law of nations. A broadside from the Leopard was immediately poured into the Chesapeake, who, unsuspicious of danger, was not in a situation to offer any resistance.—She struck her colours. The captain of the Leopard, after having taken out four of her men, (who have since been tried at Halifax, and one of them executed on a charge of desertion and mutiny) refused to keep possession of the frigate, and she returned dismasted and disabled to Norfolk, having had some of her men killed and wounded; amongst the latter was the commodore himself. This affair roused the indignant spirit of the country; party-prejudice seemed to be annihilated; and from one end of the United States to the other but one sentiment prevailed—a resolution to support the government in defending the national honour. The president issued a proclamation, interdicting all communication with any British armed vessels, and forbidding their entrance into our harbours or waters; and a representation of all the circumstances has been forwarded to the court of London. Here, at present, the matter rests.

SWISSERLAND.

It is painful to the mind to contemplate Swisserland as it was a few years ago, in contrast with the situation to which it is now reduced.

It consisted heretofore of twenty republics, forming (like the United States of America) one general republic; and, though a collective body without sovereignty, the people had this imperfection more than counterbalanced by the invaluable privilege of obeying their own laws, and of being governed by great and good men selected from amongst themselves. Its counsellors were wise, its soldiers valiant, its situation circumscribed, its politics peaceable, and its citizens happy.

It is now in fact, though not in name, a province of France; its landamman is Reinhard, one of the French deputies at Ratisbon who escaped assassination; and its ancient proud and independent spirit is extinguished. In the strong language of one who had suffered severely from the destruction of the Helvetic confederacy, "it is the empty and bloody skin of an immolated victim: it has nothing left now but rocks, ruins, and demagogues."

Yet that instinctive predilection which almost every man entertains for his native soil, is, perhaps of all others, the most deeply implanted in the heart of a Swiss. Whilst engaged in the service of a foreign country, on his march, or fighting its battles as a mercenary machine, the delightful air of the "*Ranz des Vaches*" will transport him beyond himself; it presents so exquisite a picture of the joys he has left behind him, that he will instinctively stand still; perhaps he will desert; and, if not allowed to do either, he will commit suicide. The French government, from a knowledge of these inevitable consequences, issued orders that this air should not be played to the Swiss soldiery under pain of military execution. For the gratification of the learned reader, we have subjoined a literal copy of this enchanting composition, which "takes the prisoned soul" of a Swiss, "and laps it in elysium."

RANZ DES VACHES.

Quand reverrai-je, en un jour,
Tous les objets de mon amour?
Nos clairs ruisseaux,
Nos coteaux,
Nos hameaux,
Nos montagnes,
Et l'ornement de nos campagnes,
La si-gentle ISABEAU?
A l'ombre d'un ormeau
Quand danserai-je au son du chalumeau?

Quand reverrai-je, en un jour,
Tous les objets de mon amour?
Mon pere,
Ma mère,
Mon frere,
Ma sœur,
Mes agneaux,
Mes troupeaux,
Ma bergère?
Quand reverrai-je, en un jour,
Tous les objets de mon amour?

In English.

When shall I behold again, in one day, all the objects of my love? our clear streams, our cottages, our hamlets, our mountains, and the ornament of our fields, the gentle ISABELLA? Under the shade of an oak, when shall I dance once more to the sound of the pipe?

When shall I behold again, in one day, all the objects of my love? my father, my mother, my brother, my sister, my lambs, my flocks, my shepherdess? When shall I behold again, in one day, all these objects of my affection?

FRANCE.

Since the regular history of this country was put to press, the great contest, which has made Europe a scene of the most sanguinary warfare, is terminated. Treaties of peace were signed with the emperor of Russia on the 7th of July, and with the king of Prussia on the 9th; and the territory of the latter, nearly the whole of which was in the possession and at the disposal of the conqueror, has been restored to him, with the exception of Silesia, and a few other places of minor consequence. The ratifications were exchanged within three days at Tilsit, at a time when one-half of the town was occupied by the French, and the other half by the troops of the combined powers. On the continent the emperor of the French has now to contend only with the king of Sweden, who will not be considered a formidable enemy, and who must shortly be subdued. Napoleon will then turn his undivided attention to England.

The following quotation, from a respectable source, will give the reader some idea of the sanguinary contests which recently took place between the Russian and French armies in Poland.

"At the battle of Hieldsberg, the grand duke of Berg, (Murat, brother-in law to the emperor of the French) passed along the line of the third division of cuirassiers, at the moment in which the sixth regiment had charged. Colonel d'Avary, commander of the regiment, his *sword dyed in blood*, said, "Prince, review my regiment, and you will find that there is not a soldier whose sword is not like mine! !"

SWEDEN.

Sweden is at present, as we have observed in the preceding article, at war with France, whose troops have captured Stralsund.

According to a statistical survey of this kingdom, given in the *Journal de Frankfort* of July last, it contains (including Pomerania) 13,565 square miles, more than half of which is uncultivated. The population is estimated at 3,299,356 souls, which gives 243 people to each square mile. Of this mass there are 120,630 gentlemen, 16,424 ecclesiastics, 7126 students, 1275 merchants, 17,233 shopkeepers, 2605 manufacturers, 87,439 trades-people, 2,572,996 peasants, 19,653 sailors, and 188,734 military people. The land-forces in the year 1805, were 47,165 men. The fleet is divided into the grand fleet and the galley fleet. The first, in 1805, consisted of 16 sail of the line fit for service, 12 frigates, and several other small vessels. The galley fleet amounted to 183 sail. These two fleets carried 8048 guns, and had 14,208 sailors and other mariners. The revenues of the state are 11,500,000 florins, the expences 11,030,000, the national debt 18 millions.

PRUSSIA.

We have already noticed the situation to which the conqueror of Europe has reduced the king of Prussia. The latter on the 14th of July, (the anniversary of the French revolution) absolved the inhabitants of the ceded provinces from their former allegiance to him, by a proclamation so very humiliating, that we cannot resist the impulse we feel to give it to our readers.

"You are acquainted, beloved inhabitants of faithful provinces, territories, and towns, with my sentiments, and with the events of last year. My arms, benumbed under the pressure of misfortunes, the exertions of the last remains of my army proved fruitless. Forced back to the uttermost borders of the empire, and even my powerful ally having judged it necessary to conclude an asmistice and peace, nothing remained for me but the wish to restore tranquility to my country after the calamities of war. Peace was to be concluded as circumstances dictated; the most painful sacrifices were required of myself and my house. What ages and worthy ancestors, conventions, love, and confidence, had united, were to be severed. My efforts—the exertions of all who belonged to me—were in vain. Fate ordains—a father parts with his children.

"I release you from all allegiance to my person and my house. My most ardent wishes for your prosperity attend you to your new sovereign; be to him what you were to me. No fate, no power can efface in my bosom and in the mind of my family the remembrance of you.

"FREDERICK WILLIAM.

"*Memel, July 14th*, 1807."

IRELAND.

The following character of Irish hospitality is taken from one of *Curran*'s celebrated speeches.

"The hospitality of other countries is a matter of necesssity or convenience—in savage nations of the first—in polished, of the latter; but the hospitality of an *Irishman* is not the running account of posted and ledgered courtesies as in other countries; it springs, like all his qualities, his faults, his virtues, directly from his heart. The heart of an Irishman is by nature bold, and he confides; is tender, and he loves; is generous, and he gives; social, and he is hospitable."

PERSIA.

GOVERNMENT.—The Persian government was monarchical, and in every branch of it strictly despotic.

The usual title of the king was Shah, or Shaw, as it is pronounced, which signifies "the disposer of kingdoms," and is the highest

title known in Asia, it being equivalent to that of emperor in Europe. They also added to the king's titles those of sultan, and khan or cawn, which is the title of the Tartar sovereigns. His arms were a lion couchant, looking at the sun as it rises over his back.

The Persians readily obeyed all the commands of their prince without reserve; so that if the son was commanded to be the father's executioner, or the father the son's, it must be complied with. Yet they said, if he commanded any thing contrary to the peculiar tenets of their religion. they were under no obligation to obey him. Several writers mention a minister in the Persian court, whom the king commanded to drink with him; but he excused himself by saying, he had been a pilgrimage to Mecca, and could not drink wine without violating the laws of their religion: to which the king replied, "Thousands have gone a pilgrimage to Mecca, and yet drink wine; drink therefore when thy sovereign commands thee." But the minister still refusing, the king not only abused him in the grossest manner, but made the servants throw the wine into his face, and pour it by force into his mouth; then threatened him with immediate death: to which the other returned, That he had a right to his life, but not to his religion; and he chose rather to die than to drink. The king then dismissed him from his employments; but he was soon after restored, and seemed to be doubly honoured by the king, for the resolution he had shewn in refusing to violate his conscience.

Laws.—The laws of the Persians are blended with their religion, agreeably to the grand principle of the Mahometans, that the same person ought to bear the spiritual and temporal swords, and be both king and high-priest: that he ought to command in war, and administer justice, as well as explain the articles of faith, and regulate their ecclesiastical discipline; and with this power both Mahomet and his successors, the caliphs, were invested during the first five centuries.

In cases of rebellion, the late princes of Persia have been entire strangers to humanity; and, not satisfied with punishing the principals, most, if not all those who were taken in arms, lost their eyes or their heads!

Criminals of state were sentenced to wear, for a determined space of time, a heavy wooden collar about their necks, to which one of their hands was fastened.

If a person had the misfortune to kill another, and the fact was proved before the judges, he was delivered up to the relations of the deceased, who were thus addressed: "I deliver you the murderer according to law: make yourselves satisfaction with his blood for the blood that he has spilt; but remember that God is merciful." When the miserable wretch was delivered to his enemies, they generally inflicted on him the most cruel tortures they could invent; and it is said, that the women, who scarce ever ap-

peared abroad on any other occasion, would come and imbrue their hands in his blood!

Pick-pockets and pilferers were marked with a hot iron in the forehead, and house-breakers had their right hands cut off. The same punishment was inflicted on those who counterfeited the coin, for the first offence; but for the second, their bellies were ript open. They had some other punishments for capital crimes, as impaling, setting them up to the chin in the earth, cutting off the hands and feet, and leaving the poor wretches in that deplorable condition till they expired.

Bakers and victuallers have been sometimes baked and roasted alive, for cheating in their weights, and raising provisions to an exorbitant price.

RELIGION OF THE PERSIANS.—The established religion of Persia acknowledges the Koran to be the great law of the prophet Mahomet, in as full a manner as it is received among the Turks; but in this their common faith has not been influential in producing concord; for the private interests and views of individuals soon gave rise to such a schism, as rendered Mahomedans as rancorous and fierce against each other as the professors of the Christian faith have been, when the purity of their religion was sullied by the dogmas of assuming men.

"The Persians acknowledge that the Mosaic was the true religion before Christ, whom they also believe to be a true prophet and teacher sent from God; but that the religion he taught was contained in a book, which, at Mahomet's coming, was taken by the angel Gabriel into heaven, and the Koran brought down in its stead. They also, like the other Mahometans, say, that Jesus Christ did not die upon the cross, but as he was going to his crucifixion, he was invisibly translated to heaven; and that Judas being miraculously brought thither in his place, his face appeared like that of Christ, and he was crucified in his stead!! Thus they confess the truth of our Saviour's mission, but mingle almost every thing relating to him with extravagant fictions."—*Sir Wm. Jones.*

EUROPE GENERALLY.

A German Author, who has lately published some statistical observations respecting the state of Europe, says, that it contains 171,995 square German miles, of which France either governs directly or protects 38,893; that it contains 182,599,000 inhabitants, of which 37,050,000 obey France, or enter into its Federal system; that there are in Europe 2,549,836 soldiers, of which France can put 854,800 in movement. The total revenues of Europe he estimates at 1,173,750,000 florins, of which France receives about 700,000,000 of livres.

SUBSCRIBERS' NAMES.

THOMAS JEFFERSON, L. L. D. *President of the United States.*
JOHN ADAMS, L. L. D. *late President of the United States.*

A

New-York.

Abeel, Garrit B.
Angelis, Gaetano, M. D.
Ayers, Wm. & Margaret
Arcularius, Charles
Ayres, David
Aycrigg, Benjamin
Alston, Isaac
Arrowsmith. Edmund
Amie, Galien
Ackerman, Mary
Amerman, Abraham B.
Austin, William
Arnold, Levi
Angevine, Gilbert
Ambrose, John
Angus, William
Askin, John
Amie, Mary
Allen, Richard
Adams, Samuel
Angevine, James
Acheson, William
Adams, Thomas G.
Aaron, Henry

Philadelphia.

Auner, Peter
Ashman, James
Allen, Howard
Ashburner, John
Askin, John
Avery, Charles
Anderson, Charles
Addis, Daniel
Addis, Amos
Allen, jun. William
Albright, Michael
Allen, George
Andrews, Leonard
Armstrong, James F.
Anderson, Samuel
Armstrong, John D.

Lansingburgh.

Atwood, Noel

New-Brunswick.

Ackerman, Ralph
Agnew, Andrew

Albany.

Austin, Jeremiah
Adams, Thomas
Austin, William
Andrew, John

Schenectady.

Aitkin, Mordecai
Alexander, William
Ayres, Isaac, & John Wiananns

Hudson.

Avery, Asa,
Allen, jun. Benjamin
Austin, Abner

Brooklyn.

Arnold, William

B

New-York.

Bailey, General Theodorus
Bleecker, A. L.
Bancker, Anna
Buxton, Charles, M. D.
Berte, Lewis
Beatty, Samuel C.
Brock, Thomas
Bogert, jun. Nicholas
Ballus, Asa
Bayard, Elizabeth
Bush, David D.
Berry, Jacob

Bancker, Anne T.
Boyd, Thomas
Badgley, Isaac and Eliza
Brundage, Edward
Brown, James
Brouwer, William
Bagley, Thomas
Buck, Daniel
Brown, William
Brady, Abraham
Betagh James
Barker, Aaron
Badeau, William
Boscawen, John
Brasher, Ephraim
Bulleriz, Rosett
Benson, Samuel E.
Burras, Benjamin V.
Brown, Ebenezer
Boyle, Jonathan
Butler, William
Brisbane, William
Blakely, John S.
Brinckly, William
Berrian, George
Buckmaster, George
Badeau, William
Belleville, Samuel R.
Bancker, Wm. Stephen S.
Bourdman, John
Bridges, Thomas
Brestesca, Lewis A.
Boyce, Isaac
Blossom, Betsy
Barker, David
Braine, Abraham L.
Bloomer, Michael
Butterworth, Henry
Busby, John
Ball, Charles
Brodie, William
Brinsford & Jackson
Brodie, Alexander R.
Bellamy, Thomas
Blackburn, William
Benedict, James
Bloodgood, John
Burrill, Ebenezer
Blanch, John H.
Birdsall, Joseph C.
Bell, Abraham

Boyle, Mary
Brownell, John
Bleecker, Frederick D.
Brown, Wheeler
Bethune, Divie
Bogart, H.
Broadhead, John C.
Butler, John
Becanon, Philip, esq.

Philadelphia.

Butler, The hon. Pierce
Butler, Captain Ezekiel
Brown, William, M. D.
Ball, Joseph
Burgess, M. & H.
Brown, William W.
Bender, Miss Mary
Browne, William W.
Beck, Henry A.
Bastian, Geo.
Burgess, Hannah & Mary
Beatty, David
Brown, Joseph D.
Barry, Mrs. Sarah
Brown, Mary
Backhouse, Ann
Booth, Geo.
Bartholomew, Edmund
Borne, Jeremiah
Brientnal, David
Black, James
Battin John
Bell, Henry
Brocar Francis
Blame Joseph
Bryan Joseph
Bevin, jun. Philip
Bunting, John
Betts, Ebenezer
Bunn, Seely, V. D. M.
Barclay, Andrew C.
Bryant, Mordecai Y.--M. P. F. S.
Burr, William
Burn, William
Barton, Gilbert L.
Boyter, Daniel

SUBSCRIBERS' NAMES.

Albany.

Beekman, Hannah
Burnett, Aaron
Bell, James
Burnett, Margaret
Boyd, John L.
Bratt, Gerrit T.
Brotherton, Isaac
Bisban, Luther
Burrows, Samuel T.
Brown, Jonathan R.
Bennett, Aaron

Lansingburgh.

Burr, Jonathan
Burt, Asa

Troy.

Burritt, Ely, M. D.
Bardsle, Lester
Bushnell, James
Boyce, Stephen
Bennett, Henry
Brainerd, Joseph S.
Barnard, Theodore
Bragg, Peleg

Schenectady.

Bowne, Gabriel H.
Boynton, Col. Abel
Banister, Cranmer
Brower, Peter
Babbit, Luther

Utica.

Baldwin, rev. Amos G.

Athens.

Basset, Benoni

Hudson.

Brower, Samuel
Bosworth, Jabez
Bowman, Nathaniel

New-Brunswick.

Boggs, Esq. Robert
Bray, Esq. John
Brognard, Francis H.
Butler, John

Elizabeth-Town.

Britten, Elihu
Baldwin, David C.
Bedford, Aaron

Brooklyn.

Bond, William
Back, Margaret

Trenton.

Bucknum, John
Bellerjeau, Daniel

C

New-York.

Clock, Abraham
Crookes, John
Cannon, Abraham
Carmer, Nicholas
Crichton, James
Chapin, Eli
Conklin, Joseph
Craig, Mary
Cadmus, Peter
Campbell, John
Clowes, Timothy
Cowan, William
Cunningham, James
Craig, R.
Colbert, John William
Cammann, Mrs. Maria
Caher, Charles
Clossey, John
Clapp, William
Cook, Silas
Clapp, Philip
Chase, William
Carithers, George
Carson, John
Cooper, Benjamin
Cowperthwait, Benjamin E.
Cowperthwait, John K.
Chase, Ammi
Charles Ann
Cox, Charles
Crown, John
Cherrish, Jane
Cunningham, Patrick
Crane, Mathias
Corwin & Ames,
Cuningham, Moses
Coffin, Alexander
Challen, William
Crommelin, R.
Cook, Captain Asher
Cargill, William
Clinch, John
Coldwell, George
Carter, John
Craig, John
Chesterman, James

Carman, Samuel
Covenhoven, Jacob
Carson, John
Clark, Samuel
Colter, Mark
Covenhoven, Nicholas
Copland, George R.
Crone, David

Philadelphia.

Cohen, Rev. Jacob, D. D.
Corfield, Esq. Edward D.
Clopp, Mary
Cheramy, Francis
Clark, Jane
Clement, Samuel T.
Caldwell, Sus n C.
Conrad, Mathew
Carteret, Joseph W.
Culvert, Nathaniel
Crowley, James
Crowley, Timothy
Corry, Benjamin L.
Collhound, William
Clarke, Edward
Carpenter, John
Collings, Richard
Crumback, Godfrey
Combs, Sarah
Coit, Gabriel
Clotworthy, John
Cahil, Edward
Clawges, sen. John
Courtney, Joseph
Carrigan, Jacob
Cameron, John
Clark, John
Cope, Godfrey G.
Clark, Joseph
Carmalt, Thomas S.
Coulston, Israel
Clark, Mary

Albany.

Crannel, William Winslow
Crane, Ambrose
Crane, Rhodolphus
Cunningham, Michael
Clark, John
Cumming, William
Carson, Thomas
Chestney, James
Costigan, Francis
Carlow, Uriah I.
Clark, Lewis

Troy.

Christie, Robert
Crow, Elijah
Chase, Philip
Coleman. James
Camp, Henry D.
Crafts, Moses

Athens.

Calkins, William

Hudson.

Coleman, William H.
Clark, Peter
Cheny, Abiel
Cruttenden, Leveret
Charlot, Enoch
Condit, Samuel H.

New Brunswick.

Cook, William
Carman, P.
Conklin, James

Elizabeth Town.

Crane, Isaac
Carman, Richard

Trenton.

Cain, Thomas

Brooklyn.

Cuscaden, Alexander

D

New-York.

Denison, Henry
De Castro, Dr. Peter Paul
Dawson, William
Davis, David
Delamater, Jane
Davis, John
Demarest, Peter
Devoise, Charles
Delezenne, Joseph C.
Dob, Elias
Dingee, Robert
Davis, Ann
Doughty, John
Dehart, Desire
Debow, Andrew
Dunn, Josiah
Doughty, Samuel
De Butts, Captain Elias

Disoway, Israel
Doyle, Moses
Dougherty, John
Degroat, Richard M.
Dodge, John
Dickinson, Thomas
Dandy, Timothy
Donavan, William
Dunn, Enoch
Deitz, John
Dillon, Robert
Demarest, Andrew
Davis, Samuel
De La Pierre, Bartholomew, esq.
Duffie, Ross
Dikeman, John
De Groat, Abraham
Dennis, John
Ducornau, T. P. jun.
Demilt, Isaac
De Graw, Aaron

Philadelphia.

Dale, Commodore Richard
Delahunt & Doyle
Davis, Evan
Drew, Nathaniel
Diehl, jun. Nicholas
Dickinson, Philemon
Duponceau, Peter S.
Dilworth, Thomas
Dixey, William
Dangel, Mary
Dilworth, William
Davis, Isaac
Dexter, Richard
Douglass, John
Dugan, Anthony
Dueye, Jacob
Dorsey, Thomas
Dean, jun. Alexander
Davis, Daniel S.
Dickson, William
Delamater, Elizabeth
Dutton, William Jones
Davis, William
Dutterar, John
Dotterer, Henry

Albany.

Donnelly, Captain Henry
Dunbar, jun. Robert
Dole, George
Dawson, Richard
Duncan, Thomas
Dunlap, James
Duff, Patrick

Lansingburgh,

Dickinson, Miss Charlotte
Dale, David

Troy.

De Camp, Henry
Davison, Hezekiah
Doan, David
Drake, Samuel
Dowd, Galen

New Brunswick.

Day, Samuel H.

Trenton.

Dickinson, Philemon

Elizabeth Town.

Dayton, E. B.
Dayton, Hon. Jonathan

Schenectady.

Duane, Delia
De Graf, Esq. Isaac
Dunaway, William

Athens.

Day, Asa

Hudson.

Davis, Mary Ann
Denison, Andrew
Dobbs, Abraham
Dewitt, Henry, jun.
Day, Ithama H.

Brooklyn.

Dikeman, Jane, and Elizabeth Pine, 1 copy
Degraw, Isaac

E

New-York.

Ellis, Richard
Erwin, John M.
Evisson, Jacob
Edric, Adeline
Eymar, Joseph
Evans, James
Ely, William Brewster
Ely, Abijah Peck

Elliot, James
English, John

Philadelphia.

Eisenhut, Andrew, jun.
Estill, James B.
Edwards, John
Eglee, J.
Eccles, James
Ecky, John, jun.
Eggers, Jacob
Ewing, George
Egert, George, jun.
Evans, Lewis

Albany.

Everson, Matthew
Elliot, James
Ennalls, Henry
Elwyn, John
Ellison, William

Athens.

Evans, Roger C.
Evarts, Joel

New Brunswick.

Egerton, Matthew
Eastburn, Robert, jun.

Elizabeth Town.

Egbert, Enos

Trenton.

Edwards, Thomas Moore

F

New-York.

Frazer, Alexander
Force, Isaac
Ferguson, William
Frost, James
Farrington, Benjamin
Ford, Joseph
Freeland, Jacob
Fowler George W.
Foos, Henry
Freeborn, Thomas
Frisbie, Dan B.
Ferris, Edward
Ferguson, Alexander
Frier, John
Fairchild, Thomas
Ford, Oliver L.
Ferdon, Thomas
Fosbrook, W.
Frazer, Robert
Fraser, David
Fosdick, Lodowick
Freelon, Mark
Ferris, James
Forrester, Andrew

Philadelphia.

First, William
Free, Amey
Fitler, George
Field, John
Fraley, Jacob
Frazer, James P.
Forbes, Robert
Falker, George
Foulke, Mary
Fortune, Walter
Freeland, Mark
Fest & Osler
Folwell, Richard
Fenton, Andrew
Fry, Joseph

Albany.

Farrell, Philip
Fry, Joseph
Field, William
Field, David
Flack, Michael
Fisher, Henry

Schenectady.

Ferrell, John

Hudson.

Fellows, Pamela
Fish, Sidney
Frisbee, Ebenezer
Frisbee, Samuel
Fulton, Samuel
Fuller, Erastus
Fellows, Nathaniel
Field, Thomas
Freelon, Mark
Ferris, James

Brooklyn.

Foster, Rev. Everson, A. M.

G

New-York.

Gelston M.
Green, William
Griffiths, Catherine
Griffin, John
Gaston, William
Goodrich, Samuel
Geib, John, jun.
Geery, Samuel
Geery, James
Geery, Joseph
Garrett, Jesse
Gomperts, Miss B. & H.
Gay, Kirkpatrick
Griffiths, Griffith P.
Graham, George
Gandy, Henry
Good, William
Garrisson, Isaac
Gibson, William
Goetz, Leonard
Grunoah, David
Griffiths, Joseph W.
Guion, John
Godden, Thomas
Griffin, Henry
Groshong, William
Guion, Monmouth H.
Gilbert, Edward
Gorham, Stephen
Gedney, Samuel
Griffin, John
Gilkison, James
Greenwood, Clark
Gallaher, William
Grant, Richard & Turell
Glass, John
Green, James W.
Gibson, John W. esq.
Griffen, John
Goodwin, John
Ganong, Mrs. Mary
Groshong, William
Griswold, Levi

Philadelphia.

Green, Rev. Ashbel, D. D.
Green, Rev. Lemuel, D. D.
Grover, Daniel
Gould, Calvin
Gilbert, Jacob
Gardner, Benjamin
Grant, William
Graba, Philip

Albany.

Graham, Elizabeth
Gansevoort, Conrad
Gaylord, Amos
Gleason, Thomas F.
Golberg, J. C.
Gilbert, James
Guest, William J.
Goodrich, B.
Gourlay, James.
Goodwin. Eldad F.
Gibbons, James

Lansingburgh.

Gaston, Isaac V.
Goewey, Peter D.

Troy.

Greenman, Josiah

Schenectady.

Groesbeck, Walter
Gally, Robert
Goodrich, Abraham

Athens.

Gilbert, Aaron

Hudson.

Gantz, Paul
Gulnack, Contine
Groat, Henry P.
Gillet, Nancy
Gifford, Samuel
Gridley, Ira

New-Brunswick.

Gibbons, Peter

Brooklyn.

Garrison, John, esq.
Gray, James

East New-Jersey.

Gray, Isaiah

H

New-York.

Hinchman, Jared
Heath, Thomas
Helms, Charles
Hardenbrook, Abel
Henry, Walter M.
Henderson, Nathan
Hawke, Robert

Howel, Richard
Hallinbeck, Mrs. Margery
Hall, Stephen
Hinsdale, Horace
Hardenbrook, David
Hughes, Captain Henry
Harp, Henry
Hooper, George
Harris, Thomas
Hamill, Henry
Henyon, Isaac
Horn, John
Hyde, Benjamin
Hilliker, John
Hare, Samuel
Hvatt, Joshua
Hennigar, John
Halstead, Andrew L.
Haviland, Jonathan J.
Hyslop, Charles
Howland, Reuben
Hasam. Thomas
Hudson, Isaac
Hazard, Morris,
Hubbell, Abel
Hart, Abijah
Harris, Jacob
Haskett, John
Hunter, William T.
Hunter, William J.
Hamill, Robert
Hoffman, Peter
Hoffman, James H.
Hoyt, Ralph
Howell, Edward, jun.
Henry, Doctor Samuel
Hunter, Henry
Hutchison, George
Henry, Captain Charles
Hall, Mrs. Jane
Hendricks, John
Henion, Peter
Holden, Asa

Philadelphia.

Hurley, Rev. Michael
Helfenstein, Rev. Samuel
Harvey, Samuel
Hood, John M'Clellan
Hunt, John
Hunt, Jonathan
Hodgdon, Samuel
Hodge, Andrew
Harland, John
Hassinger, Jacob
Hall, Thomas M.
Howard, Caleb Newbold
Hodgson, Robert
Hesser, John G.
Hoopes, Israel
Hughes, Daniel
Hutchison, William
Hassall, Joseph
Hansell, John
Holdernesse, William
Hamel, Rebecca
Hazelton, Isaaih
Havin, Robert, jun.
Heaton, Tuttle
Hunert, John
Hardy, John C.
Howard, Susanna
Harrison, Mrs. Sarah A.
Heath, Joseph
Haars, Christian
Hope, George T.
Hartline, John
Henry, Joseph
Hoffman, Isaac
Higday, George
Hera, John
Hammond, Elijah
Hiness, Maria
Hall, Ezekiel
Himes, Henry
Heyberger, George
Henderson, John

Albany.

Hansen, J. esq.
Harbeck, Henry
Henn, Daniel H.
Henry, John
Hart, Miss Lorana
Hatch, Sears
Hand, Aaron
Holkins, Abel D.
Hewson, Thomas
Hooker, James

Hewson, Casparus
Humphrey, Barnet C.
Hanlon, Thomas
Lansingburgh.
Hickok, Samuel
Hale, Eber
Haugzs, George
Troy.
Hoar, Samuel
Hutchinson, Stacy
Hollister, Jesse
Higbie, Benjamin
Schenectady.
Haldock, Michael C.
Horstall, William T.
Hows, Benjamin
Henyon, Isaac
Athens.
Hamilton, George Clinton
Howland, Elizabeth
Hudson.
Hubbill, Levi
Hunt, Alpheus M.
Hallinbeck, Casper
Hyatt, Ann Catherine
New-Brunswick.
Hunt, Mary E.
Henry, John
Hicks, Benjamin
Elizabeth Town.
Hendricks, Luther B.
Hays, William T.
Hatfield, Oliver
Brooklyn.
Hilton, B.
Harris, Sarah
Harris, William

I J

New-York.
Judson, Lewis
Jenkins, Mrs.
Idley, Ann Eliza
Jenkins, James
Johnston, John R.
Jackson, William
Inslee, Zebulon
Jackson, Samuel
Johnston, Mrs. Jane
Jackson, Robert
Johnson, William
Jackson, Ephraim
Jobes, Samuel
James, Roderick
Jackson, Tamer
Jackson, Jane
Ivers, Charles W.
Joraleman, Thomas
June, Anna
Jumel, Eliza
Jones, Morris
Isaacks, S. M.
Isherwood, mrs. F.
Jeroleman, Jacob
Jaques, John

Philadelphia.
Jackson, David
Jones, Isaac R.
James, Mrs. Elizabeth
Jackson, James
January, Elizabeth
Johnston, James
James, Martha
Iredell, Robert, jun.
Jobson, Charles
Johnson, Mrs. Elizabeth L.
Albany.
Jones, William W.
Johnston, Jeremiah
Jenkins, David
Jenckes, Ahab
Jones, Elisha
Ives, Joseph
Jones, Miles
Troy.
Johnson, Ben
Johnson, David B.
Schenectady.
Joyce, Thomas
Hudson.
Jenne, Seth
Johnson, William
Trenton,
Jones, Benjamin

K

New-York.
Kitchel, Henry
Knapp, Eli
Knapp, Josiah
Knapp, Eben
Knapp, Charlotte

Ketcham, Jonas
Kehoe, John
Kline, Leonard
King, John
Kipp, Bartholomew

Philadelphia.

Kerr, James
Keppele, Sarah C.
Kelly, Thomas
Keyser, Jacob
Kauck, Christain
Keller, Adam
Kelly, Frances
Keyser, Joseh

Albany.

Keeler, Mary F.
Kittredge. Joseph D.

Troy.

Kimberly, John

Schenectady.

Knowlton, Robert

Hudson.

Kellogg, Lyman

New-Brunswick.

Kelsey, John

L

New-York.

Lawson, William
Lecounte, Susan
Leonard, Ophelia
Lewis, Jonathan
Letts, William
Lavana, Nancy
Lawrence, Cornelia B.
Laird, John A.
Lorton, William
Lockwood, James
Law, Mrs. Lucretia
Lear, John
Laing, Peter
Lyon, James
Lyons, Mrs. Nicholas B.
Lyon, Daniel
Leach, Adam
Lambert, Philip
Lawrence, John
Love, David
Littell, George
Lord, Joseph
Lawrence, William
Lamphear, Maxon
Leech, Richard
Linkletcr, James
Leabech, John C.
Le Fort, John
Lawrence, William

Philadelphia

Lindsay, Samuel
Levy. Aaron
Leak, Samuel D.
Lippincott, Jane A.
Lewis, Samuel N.
Lewis, Mordecai
Lievzly, John
Lace, Willtam
Leatherman, Jane
Letherborrow, Deborah
LishHenry
Low, John
Lozier, Mary
Latimer, Thomas
Little, Devid
Lewis, John

Albany.

Lansingh, Abraham A.
Lamoree, James
Ludlow, Joseph
Lewis, John W.

Lansingburgh.

Ladue, James

Troy

Lynds, Elam

Schenectady.

Ludlow, John
Leslie, Gcorge
Lusher, Eri

Hudson.

Landon, George

New-Brunswick.

Louzada, David

M

New-York.

Mitchill, Major Jonas
Massonneau, William N.
M'Murray, Dr. James Farrel
M'Connell, James

Marsh, M.
M'Leod, Hugh
Miers, Margaret
Moore, Joseph
Michaels, Jacob W.
M'Leod, Maria A.
Montayne, Vincent D. L.
Morris, John
M'Farlane, John
M'Dowgall, N.
Morris, Jediah
Moore, Enoch
M'Donogh, Patrick
M'Gluen, Patrick
N'Kay, John
Moor, Thomas
Myers, James J.
M'Kay, Patrick
Marschalk, Christian
Marinus, Adrian
Maxwell, Jacob
Marsh, Moses
Munson, Reuben
Morehead, Robert
Morrell, Richard
Merry, Edward
Marsh, Amariah
Moffit, Charity
M'Veagh, William
Mulford, David
Morgan, John
M'Creary, David,
M'Crea, Mary
M'Lean, John
Morris, Pearson
Mott, John
Morrell, Robert
Mount, John
Marshall, Joseph
Miller, Joseph Y.
M'Kelvey, John
Mott, Jacob
M'Carthy, Charles
Mackay, James
Menger, Lewis
Meinell, Thomas
Maurice, John
Maynard, Tyler, esq,
Meeks, Joseph
Mahany, Mathias
Marsh, John
Morrison, James
M'Farlane, John
Martling, William
M'Pherson, Charles A. W.
Murdock, John B.
Mather, Dan
Mott, Joseph
M'Grath, John
Mitchell, William
Meeks, James

Philadelphia.

Macpherson, General William
Macferran, Samuel, esq.
Maxfield, Sarah
Middleton, Aaron
Millard, Benjamin
M'Cawley, Peter
Miller, Archibald
Mason, William
M'Farland, John
Montgomery, William
M'Elwee, Charles B.
Milligan, James
Malambre, Jacob
Miller, Gurdon S.
Mory, Mrs. Elizabeth
Macdougall, George Gordon
M'Naught, Archibald
Martin, William
Miller, Philip
M'Call, Margaret
Martin, John
Moore, Robert
Morrison, Captain William
M'Laughlin, George
M'Dowell, John
Mayfield, Catherine
M'Fee, John
Moore, George D.
Muncas, William
Mifflin, Benjamin
Moore, James A.
Meredith, Rachael
M'Carty, William
Mealy, Rebecca
Marshall, Susanna
M'Calla, Alexander, esq
Melcher, Horatio L.

Meeser, Maria
Maas, David J.
Morgan, Thomas
Malin, John
Milliman, John
M'Minn, William
M'Kee, David
M'Kenzie, Mr.
Marshall, Amaziah
Manlove, Boaz
Mason, Isaac N.
Millman, Jessy
Miller, Levi
Manlove, William
Miller, Jacob
Mirkill, John
Mitman, Philip
Murray, Michael

Albany.

Meier, Mrs. Mary
Mancius, W.
Mancius, J.
Munsell, William W.
Merrell, Joseph S.
Marshall, Joseph
M'Intire, John
Miller, Philip
Mallory, Daniel F.
Morgan, Lawrence
May, William
Mitchill, Isaac
Morris, Joseph
M'Lachlan, Peter
Martling, John
Morrison, Jacob
Mounsey, Thomas

Troy.

Miles, Elisha, M. D.
Marsh, Joshua
Miller, Abijah
Mead, J. W.
M'Cullen, Robert

Schenectady.

M'Clyman, William
Mynderse, Josiah
M'Clure, Jame

Athens.

Morton, Reuben
Macy, Daniel

Hudson.

Micthell, Asa
Muir, Ephraim
Muldon, Michael

New-Brunswick.

Morris, Robert
Middleton, William

Elizabeth Town.

Morrell, Rev. Thomas
M'Dowell, Rev. John
Mann, Isaac
Mayo, Edward

Trenton.

Mulford, Jacob

Harlæm.

Mott, Joseph

N

New-York.

North, Col. Benjamin
Nugent, James
Nichols, Samuel
Nicoll, George
Newcomb, Obadiah
Nathan, Seixas
Nexsen, William
Nuttman, Ebenezer B.
Newland, Alexander
Nibalaw, Patrick

Philadelphia.

Nagel, Charles
Nelson, Jane
Nathan, Benedict
Nichols, Enoch

Albany.

Norman, Joseph
Noon, D.

Troy.

Niven, Daniel
Nelson, Walter

Schenectady.

Newton, Thomas

Athens.

Northrop, Isaac

Elizabeth Town.

Nutman, Oliver

O

New-York.

Oothout, Mrs. H.
Obert, Peter

Oakley, David
Oliver, Thomas
O'Hare, Hugh
Oblenis, Bernard
Owens, James
O'Neil, Charles
Ogden, Mathias
Osborn, Wines
Osborn, William
Oakden, Joseph
O'Brien, William
Ortley, Henry
Ogden, Abraham

Philadelphia.

Old, John

Albany.

Osborn, Aaron

Troy.

Ostrander, Edward

Elizabeth Town.

Oliver, James

P

New-York.

Peck, Rev. Pheonis
Perry, Robert, esq.
Pell, Caleb
Purdy, Josiah
Price, Joseph W.
Purdy, Israel
Payne, Daniel
Phelan, Eliza
Palmer, Roger R.
Pullis, Thomas
Perry, Robert
Paxton, John A.
Partelow, Nathan
Pelletreau, Francis
Pickens, James
Petty, Phinehas
Pelg, Phinehas
Powell, Peter
Parke, Hannah S.
Peck, Sands F.
Platt, Thomas
Puckering, Robert
Price, Benjamin
Prendergast, Richard C.
Place, Smith
Puntine, William M.
Pelletreau, Elias
Post, Henry
Parrot, William
Post, John J.
Patten, James
Pell, Jabesh
Palmer, William
Paul, John
Persiany, Luke
Pray, Mrs. Jane
Patterson, Morris
Phelan, John
Plummer, William
Proal, Peter
Parkhurst, Jabez
Potter, Gilbert
Purves, Wilson & Laing, 3 copies

Philadelphia.

Pedersen, P. His Danish Majesty's Consul General
Pilmore, Rev. Josepb, D. D.
Patterson, Hamilton
Painter, Philip
Pool, Joseph
Park, Samuel
Platt, George
Philips, John
Page, Ann
Pons, John and Elizabeth
Plocher, Jacob J.
Polis, George
Premier, Jacob
Premier, John
Plotts, John
Phile, David
Porter, Elizabeth
Peres, Peter, M. D. Surgeon in the late Amreican army

Albany.

Phelps, John S.
Packard, Isaac
Pierson. A.
Parmele, Sally N.
Patterson, William
Pomeroy, Noah
Pangburn, Solomon
Plume, Garrit

Sommer, John Jacob
Stinemetz, William
Stadling, Elizabeth
Strong, William

Albany.

Stewart, Mary
Smith, John
Smith, Ann
Sears, Richard
Stanton, Thomas Wright
Solomons, Levy
Scoon, Walter
Schuyler, Lucas

Lansingburgh.

Snow, Jeduthan
Smith, David

Troy.

Sampson, John
Stone, Isaac
Smith, Nicholas
Smith, George
Southwick, Daniel
Storer, Samuel
Staples, Abraham
Stoughton, John
Stevens, Joshua

Schenectady.

Swits, Andrew
Stewart, Thomas
Sisson, Giles
Slater, James
Swits, Jacob
Santvoord, Cornelius Z. V.

Hudson.

Stone, Silas
Spoor, John
Sterling, David
Stanton, William

Newark.

Stockton, Catharine

New-Brunswick.

Sleight, John

Elizabeth Town.

Smith, Oliver
Smith, Martha
Skinner, Jonathan D.

Jamaica.

Schoonmaker, Rev. William

Brooklyn.

Smith, Captain David
Spence, Hugh

T

New-York.

Tompkins, His Excellency Daniel D. Governor of the State of New York.
Tillary, James, M. D.
Townsend, Solomon D.
Thompson, Ann & Jane
Tremper, Michael
Thompson, Charles
Twaddle, James
Titus, Benjamin
Tylee, N.
Turner, Joseph
Todd, Alexander
Tasheira, Joseph
Townsend, Richard
Thompson, John
Thorn, Stephen
Tawzer, Esther
Taylor, Stevenson
Tully, Samuel
Tucker, Daniel N.
Turnbull, James
Thorp, John B.
Tinkir, Richard
Truman, Clark
Ten Eyck, Nicholas
Townsend, Solomon
Tanner, J. W.
Thomas, Thomas
Tredwell, Henry
Tripler, William
Thomas, Owen
Thorp, George B.
Tinkey, Andrew
Traphagen, John

Philadelphia.

Townsend, Dr. L.
Thompson, Thomas
Tomlinson, John
Thomson, Mrs. Ann
Thouron, E.
Tremper, Master William
Thompson, Mary
Taylor, John
Thompson, Benjamin A.
Thomas, Enoch
Toland, Henry

Tanner, I. W.
Tatem, George P.
Tanner, T. W.
Albany.
Thayer, Joseph
Turner, John
Todd, John
Thorne, James, jun.
Thompson, Thomas
Trembly, Eliphalet
Tucker, William
Lansingburgh.
Turner, Thomas
Troy.
Tuttle, Norman
Taylor, Samuel
Schenectady.
Teller, Henry R. esq.
Tripp, Thomas B.

U

New-York.
Urmy, John
Philadelphia
Urann, Mary Ann

V

New-York.
Varick, Richard, esq.
Van Verst, Walter
Van Orden, David
Valentine, Isaac
Vanhouten, Rulef C.
Verveelen, James
Van Beuren, Peter I.
Vreeland, John
Valleau, Wesley
Vandevoort, Benjamin
Vincent, Abraham
Van Gelder, David
Van Gelder, Abraham, jun.
Valentine, David
Van Keuren, Hannah
Van Wart, Eleanor
Van Winkle, John S.
Van Beuren & Schoonmaker
Van Horn, Gerry,

Philadelphia.
Van Pelt, Peter
Vanevour, Ead
Vanderslice, George
Vesey, Harriet
Albany,
Van Rensselaer, the Hon. Pet. S.
Van Wie, Mrs. Margaret
Van Loon, Jacob
Vedder, Alexander
Van Horn, James
Vischer, Bastigan T.
Vernon, John
Van Buskirk, Isaac
Troy.
Vanderburgh, Mathew
Van Tine, John
Van Vleck, Mathew
Van Valkenburgh, Lambert
Schenectady.
Vrooman, John Jacob
Van Ingen, William
Veeder, Francis, and Son
Van Ingen, Henry Glen
Veeder, Willhellminus
Van Beuren, Charles
Van Vranken, Nicholas R.
Vermulia, Adrian
Bound Brook.
Vail, Daniel
New Brunswick.
Van Aursdalen, Henry
Van Deursen, John
Van Nortwick, Christian H.
Vanderbilt, Jeromus
Van Deursen, William
Van Horn, John
Vandeventer, John
Voorhis, John

W

New-York.
Willett, Honourable Marinus
Williston, Rev. Ralph
Willcocks, Major William
West, Captain Abner
White, Daniel
Weeks, Ezra
Walker, Joseph
Wilson, Robert
Westervelt, Catherine
Waldron, Pheobe
White, Francis

Walker, Thomas
Watkins, Joseph
Waring, Thomas
Wade, Francis
Williamson, W. D.
Willis, David
Walker, James
Wight, Archibald
Wheeler, Jacob
Wallace, Charles S.
Williams, Robert, jun.
Woods, Hannah
Wyant, Thomas
Webb, Samuel
Western, Thomas
Warnow, Benjamin
Williams, Cornelius T.
Wright, John
Westerfield, Peter
Wanmaker, Abraham
Wheatly, Frederick
Wheeler, Eliphalet
Welsh, George J.
Welsh, Robert W.
Wallace, William
Wheeler, Solomon
Weed, Oliver
Williams, Cornelius
Waterbury, William M.
Woodruff, Israel
Westervelt, Abraham
Weeks, Stephen
Weed, Ebenezer E.
Wagner, George M.
Wagner, George William
Westfield, John
Weed, Charles W.
Wilson, Abraham
Wynkoop, Cornelius
Winshell, James
Williams Charles C.
Wells, Wait, 2d.
Willcox, Charles
Woodruff, Aaron
Wright, Andrew
Wishart, Alexander
Welsh, Robert
Wragg, Elizabeth
Westervelt, Daniel
Westerfield, John
Wandell, A.
Wagner, Geo. M.

Philadelphia.

Wylie, Rev. Samuel B.
Woollett, W.
Wurts, William
Wurts, Sarah
Walker, John & Joseph
Wistar, John
Waddell. H. L.
Wood, Peter
West, John
Wiley, Robert
Whilldin, Wilmot
Wharton, Charles
Wilson, Alexander
Wolfe, Mary
Wray, Catherine and Jane
Woglom, Abraham
Whiteman, John
Wolfe, John
Weyman, Jacob
Whitehead, R.

Albany.

Wallace, Benjamin, esq.
Wendell, Harmen
Wilson, Mrs. Ann
Wills, Ephraim
Wilkens, John
Wood, Joseph
Williams, William W.
Wilson, Samuel
Way, Gideon
Wilson, Benjamin
Winne, William B.
Weaver, Henry
Ward, Daniel
Wilson, George

Lansingburgh.

Wolcott, John

Troy.

Wilson, Nathaniel
Willcox, Elijah
Wendell, David S.
Williams, Ezra

Schenectady.
Wiley, Susanna
Athens.
Witherell, Timothy
Wheeler, William
Hudson.
Whiting, William
Wheeler, Eliza
Woodward, John
White, Solomon
Savanna.
Woodruff, Israel
New-Brunswick.
Wyckoff, Peter
Elizabeth Town.
Wade, Elias
Williamson, Isaac H.
Wilt, Mr. Abigal
Williamson, Mathias H.
Wooley, David
Woodruff, Andrew
Whitlock, Henry
Brooklyn.
Weller, Frederick W.

Y

Philadelphia.
Young, Thomas
Young, Mary
Albany.
Yates, John B.
Young, Peter, Pewterer
Lansingburgh.
Young, George
Troy.
Young, G. D.
Youngs, Henry
Schenectady.
Yates, Honorable Joseph C.
Yates, Mrs. Ann
Yates, Mrs. Henry, jun.
New-York.

Z

Zabriskie, Andrew C.

ADDITIONAL NAMES.

Newburgh.
Cholbee Royce,
Johnathan Learu,
John Nethaway,
A. W. Van Deursa,
Wm. Seymour, Esq.
Richard Newell,
Selah Smith,
William Crauie,
John Coleman,
Henry S. Hoornbeck,
Charles Humphreys,
John Abercrombie,
Cornelius Roosa, M. D.
Jacob Ritchie,
John Marshall,
Catherine Weller,
Edward Sauxay,
Leonard Carpenter.

/

THE NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY
REFERENCE DEPARTMENT

This book is under no circumstances to be taken from the Building

SEP 2 8 19[illegible]

JAN 2 8 19[illegible]

form 410